

**INWARDLEIGH**, a parish in Devonshire,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  m. SSE of Hatherleigh, on a branch of the Torrridge. Area 6,281 acres. Pop. in 1831, 638; in 1851, 693.

**INWORTH**, a parish in Essex,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  m. SSE of Coggeshall, on the Eastern counties or London and Norwich railway. Area 1,554 acres. Pop. 717.

**INYACK ISLAND**, or **SANTA MARIA**, an island of Africa, in Delagoa bay, off its E peninsula. Its N point, Cape I., is in  $13^{\circ} 25' 12''$  S lat., E long.  $13^{\circ} 36' 41''$ . The interior of the main, from this cape to Cape St. Lucia, is a low level country; but about 3 or 4 leagues from the shore a line of hills, apparently 800 or 1,000 ft. high, is visible.

**INZA**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Penza, and district of Gorodichtshe. It has its source to the SE of the village of Voronovo, and flowing NW along the frontier of the gov. of Simbirsk, throws itself into the Sura, on the r. bank, at Tcherkovo, after a course of 78 m.

**INZAGO**, a village of Austrian Lombardy, in the prov. and 18 m. ENE of Milan, district and 5 m. E of Gorgonzola, on the Martesana canal. Pop. 1,930.

**INZELI**. See **ENZELLE**.

**INZER**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Orenburg, which has its source in the Ural mountains, in the district and 60 m. NW of Verkh-Uralsk; makes a considerable circuit to the S; and then bending W, throws itself into the Belaia, on the r. bank, 24 m. SE of Ousa, and after a course of 156 m. Its principal affluent is the Sim.

**INZERSDORF**, a village of the archduchy of Austria, in the prov. of Lower Austria, and circle of the Wienerwalde, 5 m. S of Vienna. Pop. 680. It has a manufactory of light cloth. Its trade consists chiefly in rhubarb.

**INZINZAC**, a commune of France, in the dep. of Morbihan, cant. and 3 m. N of Hennebon, and 8 m. NNE of L'Orient. Pop. 2,300. Fairs for grain and cattle are held here 3 times a-year.

**INZLINGEN**, a village of Baden, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, bail. of Lörrach, 5 m. NE of Bâle, and 26 m. SSW of Friburg. Pop. 838.

**IO**. See **Yo**.

**IOACHIMSTHAL**, or **JOACHIMSTHAL**, a town of Prussia, in the prov. of Brandenburg, regency and 54 m. NE of Potsdam, circle and 12 m. WSW of Angermünde, near the lakes of Grimnitz and Werbellin. Pop. in 1837, 1,560. It has several distilleries and oil-mills.

**IOCKGRIM**, or **JOCKGRIM**, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of the Pfalz, district and 12 m. SE of Landau, near the Rhine. Pop. 800. It has a castle.

**IOCKMOCK**, or **JOCKMOCK**, a town of Sweden, in the prefecture of North Bothnia, lappmark and 99 m. NW of Lulea, 144 m. WNW of Tornea, on the r. bank of the Lulea. Pop. 1,400.

**IOCKSBERG**, or **JOCKSBERG**, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of Middle Franconia, presidial and 2 m. NW of Leutershausen, and 10 m. WNW of Anspach, on the Altmühl. It contains a castle, and has a manufactory of calico.

**IODLOVA**, or **JODLOVA**, a town of Galicia, in the circle and 12 m. NNW of Jaslo, and 17 m. SE of Tarnow, near the l. bank of the Wisloka.

**IOELSTER**, or **JOELSTER**, a parish of Norway, in the diocese of Bergen, near the centre of the bail. of North Bergen. Pop. 1,811.

**IOENAKER**, or **JOENAKER**, a haerad of Sweden, in the S part of the prefecture of Nyköping.

**IOENKOPING**. See **JÖNKÖPING**.

**IOLA**, a village of Calhoun co., in the state of Florida, U. S., 58 m. SSW of Tallahassee, on the W side of Appalachicola river, and connected by a railroad with the St. Joseph, on the coast of the gulf of Mexico.

**IOLA**, or **YOLA**, a town of Central Africa, the cap. of Adamawa, situated in about  $8^{\circ} 30'$  N lat., and  $7^{\circ}$  E long., in an extensive and well-cultivated plain, on the Faro, a considerable river which receives all the small rivulets in which the surrounding territory abounds, and is not passable except in boats. It was first visited in 1851, by Dr. Barth, who was informed that it is a journey of 15 days from Kuka, and 7 days from the N frontier town of Adamawa. Indigo, ivory, salt, and slaves constitute the leading articles of traffic. The chief currency consists of small yellow Venetian glass beads. The town is large and open, and forms a kind of distant suburb of the larger town of Gorin or Guren, the former cap. of the sultan.

**IONA**, **ICOLMKILL**, or **I-COLUMB-KILL**, or **I**, a small but celebrated Hebridean island, situated off the SW extremity of Mull, in the p. of Kilfinichen, Argyleshire, 9 m. SW of Staffa, and about  $36'$  m. W of the nearest part of the district of Morven, or the mainland of Scotland. A strait, called the sound of I. or of Icolmkill, about  $\frac{3}{4}$  m. broad, and 3 m. long, deep enough for the passage of the largest ships, but dangerous from sunken rocks, separates it from Mull. Islets and rocks—the most conspicuous of which is Soa on the SW—are numerous sprinkled round one-half of its coast. A heavy swell of the sea, but not such as to imperil navigation, usually rolls toward it from the N. Its length is about 3 m. from NE to SW; its breadth about 1 m. Its superficial area is conjectured to be about 1,300 Scottish acres. It has a waving outline, approaching on the whole to the form of an oval, but exhibiting an almost constant alternation of projection of land and indentation of sea. The bay of Martyrs, on the NE side, a little creek, forms the chief harbour. Port-na-Currach, on the SW side, is a still more considerable creek. The surface of the island consists of small, pleasant, fertile plains, in most places along the shore, and of rocky hillocks and patches of green pasture, and an intermixture of dry and of boggy moorland in the interior. At the S extremity, excepting a low sandy tract near Bloody bay, it is merely a vexed and broken expanse of rocks. The highest ground is near the northern extremity, and rises only about 400 ft. above sea-level. Numerous though small springs afford an ample supply of pure water. About 500 Scottish acres, or five-thirteenthths of the whole area, are arable. Serpentine—probably the most beautiful stone found in large quantities in Scotland—may be quarried to any extent in Icolmkill. Sienite or red granite, nearly as hard as the granite of Mull, occurs in extensive rocks in the SW. Spotted schistus, difficult to be worked, and too coarse for slates, is the chief stone on the NE. The whole island is the property of the Duke of Argyll, and yields a rental of only about £300. On the bay of Martyrs, near the ruins which constitute the grand attraction and the glory of the place, stands the village of Threld,—a collection of miserable huts. The inhabitants of this v. constitute nearly the whole pop. of the island. By the rearing of cattle on their little crofts, and selling them in Mull, and by an unimportant tiny trade in pebbles and other matters, they procure a small importation of oatmeal, and for every other necessary of life depend on their own little island and its encircling sea. I. was probably uninhabited, or at best but occasionally visited by the people of Mull, previous to the time of Columba, and comes first into notice as a quiet retreat gifted over to the saint for the uses of his missionary establishment. Columba himself excelled in all secular learning, was a proficient in the knowledge of medicine and the practice of eloquence; and not a few of the members of his community, in

successive generations, were eminently skilled in rhetoric, poetry, music, astronomy, mathematics, and general philosophy and science. About the beginning of the 8th cent. learning of every sort, in fact—with the exception of some poor remains of philosophy and the arts in Italy—was hunted out of every part of Continental Europe, and concentrated its energies and its glories on the little arena of Icolmkill. If any relics of the Culdees exist on the island, they must, to all appearance, be sought only among the oldest of the tomb-stones. St. Oran's chapel, the oldest existing ruin, is probably the work of the Norwegians. It is in the Norman style, rude, only 60 ft. by 22, and now unroofed, but otherwise entire. On the S side of this chapel, and adjacent to it, is an enclosure called Relig Oran, 'the burying place of Oran.' This was the grand cemetery of Iona, the cherished and far-famed spot whither, for ages, funeral parties voyaged from a distance to inter the illustrious dead.—The chief ruin on the island is that of the abbey church or cathedral. Its form is that of a cross; the length being about 160 ft., the breadth 24 ft., and the length of the transept 70 ft. That of the choir is about 60 ft. The tower is about 70 ft. high, divided into three stories.—I, pronounced Ee, and sometimes written Hi, Hii, or Hy, means 'the island,' and is the name commonly in use by the natives and other Hebrideans, the place being, among the Ebudean archipelago, the island par excellence. But when necessity is felt to speak distinctively, the name used is I-columb-kill, or abbreviated, I-columkill, 'the island of the cell of Columba,' the saint to whom the place owes all its importance, the patron-saint of the Hebrides, and long the patron-saint of all Scotland. The name Iona is either *I-thonna*, 'the Island of the waves;' or *I-shonna*, 'the Holy or Blessed island;' most probably the former, and, in that sense, quite descriptive of its appearance in a storm. This name is sometimes written Hyona; and is used by historians, poets, and strangers,—commending itself to them by its euphony.

IONIA, a central county of the state of Michigan, U. S., comprising an area of 576 sq. m. It has a finely undulating surface, with a highly fertile soil, and is drained by Grand river and its branches. Pop. in 1840, 1,923; in 1850, 8,488. It contains a township and village of the same name, 136 m. WNW of Detroit.—The township lies on both sides of the Grand river, which is here navigable, and is watered also by its tributaries. The village is on the N side of the river. Pop. 486.

IONIAN REPUBLIC, or UNITED STATES OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS, a small republic in the SE of Europe, composed of a group of islands in that part of the Mediterranean which lies between the coast of Greece and the island of Sicily, and consisting of seven large and several smaller islands. The larger islands are Corfu, Paxo, Santa-Maura, Ithaca, Cephalonia, Zante, and Cerigo. Six of these islands are situated in the Ionian sea, and one in the Ægean. They stretch along the coasts of Greece and Albania from NW to SE, between 35° 50' and 39° 57' N lat. Four of them lie in a group opposite the mouth of the gulf of Corinth; other two, Corfu and Paxo, are situated about 80 m. NW of this central group, from which Cerigo, the remaining island, lies about 150 m. SE. The five seaport towns of Bucintro, Gomenitza, Parga, Prevesa, and Vonitza, on the neighbouring continent, were formerly placed under the same jurisdiction with these islands. A more minute description of the several islands and their productions will be found in our pages under their respective heads. A few general details will be here embodied.

*Area, &c.]* The area and pop. of the principal islands are as follows:

	Area.	Pop. in 1836.	Pop. in 1844.
1 Cephalonia,	348 sq. m.	63,197	69,984
2 Corfu,	227	65,057	64,676
3 Santa-Maura,	180	17,195	18,676
4 Zante,	156	35,348	38,929
5 Cerigo,	116	8,707	11,684
6 Ithaca,	44	9,644	10,821
7 Paxo,	26	5,064	5,017
	1,097	204,266	219,797

To the island of Corfu belong Fanno, Merlere, Saseno, Samothracia, Sivota, and all the other islets in or out of the channel to Cape Formaggio. To Cephalonia belong Guardiani, Luca, Dia, and several other islets. To Zante belong Stivali, Marathonisi, Piluso, Trentenove, Prodono, Sapienza, Porto-Schisa, Venitico, and other islets between it and Cape Gallo. To Santa-Maura belong Meganisi, Chitios, and the islets in the channel of Santa-Maura to the port of Figlia. To Cerigo belong Cerigotto, Poro, Poretto, Dragonera, Cervi, and all from Cape St. Angelo to Coron. To Ithaca belong Kalamos, Castus, Arkudi, Atako, and all the islets out of the channel to the rock Cazzolani inclusive. To Paxo belong Antipaxo, Cassionisi, San-Nicolo, La Madonna, and all the other islets round Paxo, and along the neighbouring continent, from Cape Formaggio to the mouth of the channel of Prevesa.

*Physical features and soil, &c.]* The general surface of the I. islands is mountainous and rocky; but the elevations do not reach any considerable height except in Zante and Cephalonia. In the latter island Mount Ænos has an alt. of 5,306 ft. The other larger islands have mountains varying from 1,000 to 3,000 ft. in alt. Their geological formation is chiefly limestone, intermixed with gypsum and sandstone; and they are generally distinguished for beauty of landscape and luxuriance of vegetation. "Their beauty they owe partly to the great variety of ground, partly to luxuriant vegetation, partly to the boundary mountains and distant views, and partly to the sea and sky." [*Davy.*] There is no active volcano in existence. The coasts are rocky, but afford good havens and roadsteads. There cannot, of course, be any considerable rivers in these islands: Corfu, however, is watered by several powerful torrents.—The soil is generally dry and calcareous; the only mineral production is asphalt. Some of the islands of the Mediterranean are of volcanic origin; but the rocks of all these islands belong to the same great calcareous formation which occupies the continent of Greece. There is a quarry of grey marble in Corfu, and a vein of coal has also been found there. Gypsum, marl, and clay, are abundant. Chalcedony and quartz are the only silicious minerals. Iron and manganese occur, and sulphate of soda is plentiful in the marl districts.

*Climate and productions.]* Spring is mild and showery, and of long duration; the summer-months are hot and dry; the autumn is showery; the winter rainy and tempestuous. N winds maintain the winter-season; the S bring in the spring, and predominate in April. Like all mountainous districts, these islands are subject to sudden vicissitudes, having the extremes of cold and heat, moisture and dryness, in rapid succession in a few hours. The olive, the lemon, the orange, and the fig-tree, display their fruits and flowers throughout the whole year; in some places the happy islanders luxuriate on a four-fold vintage, and the frosts of winter are never known to chill a single rose-bud. The mean temp. at Corfu is from 63° to 66°; the summer-heat never exceeds 80°, except when the fiery sirocco blows. The centre islands, and especially Zante, are exposed to occasional hurricanes and earthquakes. Snow often falls during



the winter, but never lies except on the high grounds. Malaria prevails in low situations in the autumnal months, and the itch is common in some parts.—Much of the surface is rocky, some parts stony, and patches of fertile grounds are interspersed. The extensive plain of Zante, in particular, resembles one continued vineyard, with patches in tillage or pasture. The following table exhibits the number of acres in crop, in all the islands, in the years 1828 and 1836:

	1828. acres.	1836. acres.
Wheat,	...	16,137
Indian corn, barley, &c.,	24,782	37,437
Oats,	1,475	5,492
Currants,	13,006	15,740
Olives,	104,523	219,339
Wine,	49,066	119,152
Cotton,	678	1,014
Flax,	995	1,310
Pulse,	2,723	4,530
Pasture,	7,770	44,960
	207,810	420,151

The extent of uncultivated land in 1828 was 292,753 acres; in 1836, 442,007 acres. The proportion of cultivated and uncultivated land in the several islands, in 1836, was as follows:

	Cultivated. acres.	Uncultivated. acres.
Corfu,	302,648	30,896
Cephalonia,	33,386	189,786
Zante,	45,071	53,869
Santa-Maura,	12,426	97,436
Ithaca,	1,725	3,137
Cerigo,	12,553	61,685
Paxo,	...	5,200

Farms are generally let by the year, and on the *metayer* system, the tenant paying half of the produce to his landlord. Field-labourers are paid about 15d. a-day. The ploughman has 1½ dollar a-day, but provides his own plough and oxen. Zante is the richest and best cultivated island.—The principal productions of the I. islands are grain, fruit, cotton, honey, wax, oil, hare-skins, and lamb-skins. The inequality of the surface affords little scope for the improvements of agriculture: nevertheless, every advantage is taken even of the smallest portions of soil. Terraces are formed on the declivities, their culture is carefully attended to, and rich harvests are obtained. Vines and olives grow universally in great luxuriance, and are the chief objects of notice. The grapes are of a diminutive kind, known in Britain when dried by the name of currants, of which the average crop is about 8,000,000 lbs. in Zante alone. In some years it has even amounted to 23,000,000 lbs. They are gathered somewhat earlier than other grapes, and spread out for 8 or 10 days previous to being packed; but there are instances of the harvest being totally ruined by rains. The valonia oak (*Quercus agrifolia*) is here a tree of great value as well as beauty. Cephalonia likewise yields 80,000 or 90,000 lbs. of honey yearly; in the island of Cerigo, it was computed there were 1,480 hives in 1811. About 100,000 lbs. of cotton of very fine quality are produced in Cephalonia. The live stock in 1836 amounted to 14,189 horses, 10,366 horned cattle, 95,950 sheep, and 68,826 goats.—The fish caught on the coasts of Corfu, Paxo, Santa-Maura, and some of the other islands, and large eels taken in the inland pools, afford important subsistence to the inhabitants. Scorpions, lizards, and small snakes, are not uncommon. Birds of prey, and poultry in general, are scarce; nor are there many other species, except birds of passage, and water-fowl among the marshes. The wild animals of the islands are foxes, hares, and rabbits.

*Manufactures and commerce.* Salt-works are carried on to a great extent in Corfu. From 5,000 to 6,000 tons of the same commodity are made in Santa-

Maura. Oil of olives is expressed in large quantities in Corfu and Zante, and a small portion in almost all the rest of the islands. The quantity of the oil depends greatly on the nature of the soil, and the mode of manufacture: that of Paxo is esteemed the best. The olive plantations yield little fruit, excepting every other year. Wine, brandy, and liqueurs, from aromatic herbs and flowers, are manufactured; and a considerable quantity of soap is made in Corfu and Zante. The best wines are those of Ithaca and Cephalonia, and the hilly parts of Zante. Coarse cotton cloths are fabricated for clothing; silk stuffs and carpets of goats' hair, for the Venetian gondolas, are made in Zante.—The I. isles export their own produce and manufactures, especially great quantities of currants, to England. Salt is sent from Corfu and Santa-Maura, chiefly to the port of Goro, at the mouth of the Po. Oil is exported to Venice, whence it is distributed to various quarters of the continent. Brandy is sent from Cephalonia to Trieste, and to Venice, Leghorn, England, and Russia. Cotton is carried from the same islands to Zante, where it is manufactured into goods suitable for turbans, and exported to Constantinople. The honey is principally consumed at Venice; hare-skins are sent to Corfu, and lamb-skins to Trieste and Senigaglia.—The imports of the I. islands consist of cattle and grain from the Morea, in proportion to the necessities of the pop. Pasturage is scanty in the greater number of the islands. Paxo does not produce more grain than is adequate to one month's consumption, and it remained a long time uninhabited, owing perhaps to its natural sterility. Between 4,000 and 5,000 peasants annually repair from Zante to the Morea, for the purpose of assisting the inhabitants in reaping their harvests; and as their services are paid in grain, each returns with several months' provision for his family. A large quantity of salted fish is imported, which meets a ready sale.—A considerable number of vessels belong to the I. isles, particularly Cephalonia and Ithaca; yet their commerce long laboured under many restrictions, yet their position is extremely favourable for traffic, presenting a common centre for the commerce of Albania, of a part of Thessaly and of Macedonia, as well as of Epirus and the Morea, and situated in front of the avenues of all the great communications between the interior of the Ottoman empire and the W coast of Greece. Ithaca has recently begun to trade with the Black sea.—The total exports in 1833 amounted to £250,699. In 1846, these islands imported into the United kingdom 3,204 qrs. of wheat; 266,308 cwt. of currants; 106 tons of fastic; 285 cwt. of liquorice juice; 123 lbs. of silk; and 119 tons of valonia.—The declared value of British and Irish produce exported from the United kingdom to the I. islands, from 1828 to 1850, was as follows:

1828	£41,078	1840	£89,204
1831	50,883	1843	127,538
1834	94,498	1846	171,731
1837	124,465	1850	135,912

The shipping employed in the trade with the I. islands in 1848 was 83 = 10,874 tons inwards, and 74 = 11,614 tons outwards, besides 2 foreign vessels = 555 tons.

*Inhabitants, State of Education, Religion.* The inhabitants of the I. islands have preserved the features of their Grecian ancestors: "the antique beauty is common amongst them," [Davy.] Both sexes are distinguished by a fine and slender shape: the men are erect, noble, and dignified in their carriage, their eyes are animated, and their whole expression open and bold. The manners and customs of the country people are purely Grecian; in the towns we occasionally meet with some lingering vestiges of Vene-

tian manners.—The foundation of a college by Lord Guilford at Corfu, has done much to improve the higher classes; and the situation of the peasantry and poorer Ionians has attracted the attention of several philanthropic societies; one or two of whom have sent out teachers to the islands. The university of Corfu had 78 students in 1848. The number of scholars in the primary and secondary schools, in that year, was 5,278 boys, and 868 girls. The Greek patois, which has hitherto been spoken in these islands, is gradually changing into the more elegant and copious language of continental Greece. At Corfu, Italian is spoken by the higher classes, which language is pretty generally understood in the towns. The present constitution declares the modern Greek to be the established and proper language of the republic, and that it is desirable this language should be the sole medium of judicial proceedings and official acts. The constitution provides also for the general and liberal education of the people. It enjoins upon the government, as one of its earliest and most imperious duties, the institution of elementary schools in the first place, and afterwards of an university. The system of instruction devised by the government is composed of three parts, viz. primary or elementary schools, secondary or classical schools, and an university. The primary schools are on the plan of mutual instruction. In the principal town of each island there is one, which serves as a model for the others, and for the education of teachers. In the village-schools, the parent or guardian pays one-fourth of a dollar monthly for each child he engages to send to the school. The teacher receives about 10 dollars a-month. And whenever a sufficient number of pupils is pledged in any village to defray a certain proportion of the expenses, the government sends a master to commence a school. The pupils are engaged for two years. It is not promising for the schools that many parents refuse to meet their pecuniary engagements until constrained to do so by the civil authority. Most of the secondary schools are of more recent establishment. They occupy a middle ground between the primary schools and the university, and are designed to prepare young men for the latter institution. Each island has one of these schools, in which there are, on an average, somewhat over 100 scholars. Every school is furnished with two or three teachers. The course of study embraces a period of four years, and the ancient Greek, Latin, Italian, and English languages, with arithmetic, algebra, geography, geometry, and penmanship. The government has printed a specific code of laws in Greek and Italian for these seminaries, from which it appears that more than two-thirds of the student's time is devoted to languages. In the Levant, this species of learning is more prevalent and more valued than any other. The principals of the classical schools receive a monthly salary of 60 dollars; and are required to make frequent reports of the state of their respective institutions to a general committee for public instruction, consisting of one ecclesiastic and two laymen, whose duty it is to watch over the interests of education in all the islands. The Ionian university, established at Corfu, owes all its importance to the munificence of Lord Guilford. It is said to date its origin as far back as 1807, when the islands were in the possession of the French; but it properly commenced its existence in 1823, when Lord Guilford, who had formed the design of an university seven years before, and had been zealously contending all that time with obstacles in the way of his benevolent schemes, obtained the countenance of government, endowed an university, and was appointed its archon or chancellor. From that time till his death in 1827,

his fortune and his time were devoted to this seminary. He used his influence to obtain patronage from the government; he paid the salaries of many of its instructors; he sent young Greeks to the universities of England to be educated for professors; he supported beneficiaries within the walls of his own university; and rendered the collection of modern Greek literature in the library of the university perhaps the most complete in the world. After his death, the government was obliged to reduce the number of professors from 17 to 9, which is the number at present. Several of those who were dismissed have since been placed at the head of classical schools. The old government house has been appropriated to the university. The professors are supported by the government, and deliver their instructions in the form of lectures, each spending about two hours-a-day in this manner. Tuition is gratuitous. The studies, according to an official document, are in the Greek, Latin, Italian, and English languages, and literature, the mathematics, the natural sciences, logic, and metaphysics, together with theology and law. The two last named form distinct departments; that for theology is called the theological seminary. Three years are devoted to the other studies. A theological seminary within the pale of the Greek church, instituted by Greeks, and with the declared design of "raising the Greek clergy of the Ionian islands from their present declension to that rank which shall qualify them happily to influence, by their instructions and example, the morals and manners of the people,"—is an interesting object of contemplation. The government provides for the support of 39 beneficiaries, to be received from the different islands in certain fixed proportions. If more are admitted, they must be supported from their own resources, or by private beneficence. The requisites for admission as beneficiaries of government are these:—the student must be a native Ionian—must have completed the age of 17 years—must have gone through the studies of the secondary schools—must be certified by the bishop of his island to possess a good moral character—must have no physical defect or organic disease—must have had the small-pox in the natural manner, or by inoculation, or have been vaccinated—and must belong to a respectable family. The student ordinarily remains five years in the seminary. At the end of that time, if his age be suitable, and he has obtained the different degrees, he may receive orders as a deacon or presbyter. If a student renounce his clerical profession, and retire from the seminary without sufficient reasons, he is required to refund the expenses incurred by the government on his account, and may be debarred from all public employments, and the remaining students are forbidden to have intercourse with him. The statutes define the studies of the seminary to be theology, and whatever goes to illustrate theology, together with the ecclesiastical services and ceremonies. The summary of Christian divinity, by Platon, late metropolitan of Moscow, translated into modern Greek by Coray, with some additions by the university professor of divinity, is at present used as a text-book; and is said to give a faithful representation of the doctrines sanctioned by the highest uninspired authorities of the Greek church. The theological students may attend the various lectures of the university; and if they have a taste for music, they are instructed in that which is practised in their churches. In their vacations, they are required to be taught the theory of agriculture.—The established religion is that of the Greek church, which is followed by at least six-sevenths of the inhabitants. In Corfu there is a numerous body professing the united Greek creed; they have an arch-

bishop, and enjoy the same rights as those of the Greek communion. The Greek clergy are governed by the archbishop of Cephalonia, and the bishops of Zante, Santa-Maura, and Cerigo. These 4 bishops have each the title of 'metropolitan,' because they are in turn vested with the supreme ecclesiastical authority over all the islands, which they exercise during the period of one parliament. The bishop of Ithaca is a suffragan of Cephalonia; the bishop of Paxo is a suffragan of Corfu. The clergy are divided into regular and secular, and are in general extremely ignorant. Their number is said to exceed 1 to every 50 inhabitants. There are about 6,000 Jews, who have a number of synagogues.

*Government.*] By the 3d article of the treaty of Paris, the Ionian republic was to regulate its own internal economy, subject to the approbation of Great Britain, and a lord-high-commissioner invested with the necessary power and authority for this purpose, was to reside upon the islands. His Britannic majesty was to have the right of occupying all the fortresses and fortified places of the seven islands, and of maintaining garrisons in them; and the military force of the said states was also to be under the orders of the commander-in-chief of the British troops. The ostensible object of this arrangement was to save the inhabitants from Moslem aggression; the mainland and most of the islands of Greece being then part of the Turkish empire. A charter was granted the united islands in May 1817, according to which the legislative assembly was composed of 40 deputies, who should hold their sittings at Corfu, the seat of government. Of this assembly, 29 members were elective and chosen by the nobles from prepared lists, and 11 integral, consisting of the president and members of the old senate with the regents or governors of the five largest islands, all of whom were substantially though not directly nominated by the high-commissioner. The 11 integral or *ex officio* members, form what is called the primary council. All the members of the legislative assembly must belong to the class of *synclite* or nobles. The administration was confided to a senate, composed of a president, 5 senators, and a secretary. The president was chosen by the lord-commissioner, and nominated for five years; the 5 senators were chosen by the legislative assembly, and the secretary by the commissioner. The judicial power was lodged in a supreme court at the seat of government, consisting of 4 ordinary and 2 extraordinary members. Of the former, 2 were native Ionians named by the senate, and 2 were named by the commissioner, and might either be British subjects or Ionians. This constitution has, as might have been anticipated, failed to give satisfaction. The Chevalier Mustoxidi, in his "Promemoria of 1839," says: "That the people may repose the requisite confidence in their representatives, it is necessary and just that they should nominate and elect them freely. The Ionian people, by the constitution of 1808, enjoyed this privilege. This was snatched from them by General Maitland, to get up the constitution of 1817, by a new form of nomination and election; and this form was afterwards made a part of the constitution itself; so that of the 40 members composing the assembly, the electors do not nominate a single one, and make a feint of electing 29; they do not nominate a single one, since the senators and the regents of the previous parliament, and the senators and the 5 members of the expired assembly, who are named by the lord-high-commissioner when the parliament is dissolved, form the high council, and are in their own right members of the new assembly; and they present to the electors the double list of names for the other 29 members. And often has it happened, that not even all the 11

councillors, but 5 or 6, and even 3, have exercised the jealous duty which ought to have devolved upon the electors; and invariably opposite to the predestined member, they purposely place on the double list as a competitor, such a candidate as must either withdraw of his own accord from the conflict, or must certainly be defeated. Thus, then, the electors make a show of electing 29; and if they do not, the senate does it; that is to say, a part of that council which nominated them. What, then," the Chevalier continues, "is the mode of proceeding, and what the powers of the assembly? The presence of 11 members is sufficient to constitute a legal sitting, so that the representatives of the island of Corfu, and the neighbouring Paxo, can, of themselves, decide on the interests, though so divided, of all the other islands; and the 11 members of the high council, that is to say, those non-elected by the people, can decide on their greatest and most important interests." A member of the assembly is not able to propose a law, unless he first informs the senate and the lord-high-commissioner. The other two powers can re-introduce at any time to the assembly a bill which it has rejected; while the assembly cannot re-propose but once during the whole course of that parliament its own bill, when rejected by the senate and the lord-high-commissioner. "The assembly meets only every two years, and for three months only. It holds three ordinary constitutional sittings every week—that is (taking days and weeks of holidays into consideration) it sits little more than 30 days in two years. What follows, of course? It leaves the business already begun unfinished, and when it again re-assembles, still more time is lost in recovering the thread of business, after an interval of 21 idle months. Besides, the public revenue of the Ionian states being derived solely from the exported produce of the land, is precarious and annually variable; while the assembly, being obliged to sanction the civil list for two years, cannot foresee, nor regulate, nor proportion to the wants of the state, the means of satisfying them." The lord-high-commissioner, in a proclamation dated 22d December 1851, has announced that he is authorized to propose certain modifications to the next parliament, with a view to remove whatever stands in the way of the fair operation of the constitution, "provided always the result of the next elections be an assembly disposed to accept her majesty's liberal concessions in a proper spirit." The modifications proposed are—1st. The substitution of an annual to a biennial session, in order thus to put an end to the dissensions between the senate and the assembly, concerning the constitutional right of the senate to make regulations having the force of law, during the recess, with the consent of the lord-high-commissioner; 2dly, the modification of those articles which regulate the present organization of the senate, in order to increase the responsibility of its members, and to regulate its duties; 3dly, the addition of a fifth judge to the supreme court of justice, in order to enable that body to decide all cases by an absolute majority, instead of by the casting vote of the president of the senate and the lord-high-commissioner; 4thly, the permission to introduce a bill for the better regulation of the powers of the local government; 5thly, the substitution of powers defined by an act of parliament, for those now exercised under the name of the high police.—Subordinate to the supreme court are 21 inferior tribunals—that is, a civil, a criminal, and a commercial tribunal in each island; and under these again are justice of peace courts for minor offences and small civil suits.—Great Britain maintains a garrison of 2,400 soldiers, which she can increase at pleasure in the islands; and has expended



above £450,000 on the fortifications of Corfu alone. The states themselves have no military establishment, but are bound to pay one-fifth of the net annual revenue into the military chest. The geographical position of these islands, combined with the possession of Malta, gives Great Britain the command of the Adriatic, and a naval and commercial preponderance in the Mediterranean, and opens an easy communication with the countries which formerly composed the states of ancient and once-glorious Greece.

*Revenue.*] The revenue in 1837 was £147,507. The gross revenue from 1834 to 1840 varied from £139,771 to £200,346. It is principally derived from an export duty on oil, currants, valonia, wine, and soap, stamp duties, and a tariff on imports. The export duties from 1834 to 1840 fluctuated as follows: on currants, from £29,921 to £54,306; on oil, from £3,665 to £62,901; customs, from £23,907 to £36,693. There are no direct taxes.

The gross amount of the general revenue for 1845 was	£149,242
Local revenue,	35,648
	£184,890

The gross amount of the general revenue for 1847 was	£122,893
Of the local revenue,	35,225
	£158,118

The sum of £15,000 is placed at the disposal of the lord-high-commissioner annually to pay the residents or governors of the different islands, two members of the supreme council, the secretary of the senate, and the treasurer-general. The president of the senate has a salary of £1,350 a-year; each senator has £675; and each member of the legislative assembly, £119.—The expenditure incurred by Great Britain in 1847-8 was £119,920; in 1848-9, £145,918.

*History.*] These islands were early celebrated in Grecian history, particularly in the Peloponnesian wars. In the war of the Romans against Philip, Corfu adhered to the former, whilst Cephalonia and Zante espoused the cause of the latter. The battle of Actium, which decided the destinies of the Roman empire, was fought between Santa-Maura and Corfu. The Romans protected the I. isles; and science and the arts lingered in this asylum after the fall of the Western empire. In the 13th cent. the kings of Naples got possession of Corfu; in the 14th, the Venetians, then masters of the Mediterranean, took these islands under their protection. Upon the dissolution of the once powerful republic of Venice, in 1796, the I. islands fell into the hands of the French; but in 1799 they were retaken by the combined fleets of Russia and Turkey; and in 1800 the emperor Paul declared them an independent state under the protection of the Porte. They were restored to France at the peace of Lunéville, confirmed by the treaty of Presburg in 1806, and that of Vienna in 1809; but were all, with the exception of Corfu, taken by a British squadron in 1810, and remained in the hands of Great Britain till, by the treaty of Paris in 1815, they were declared a free, single, and independent state, and placed under the protection of his Britannic majesty and his successors; and an act of ratification, formally placing the islands under the British protectorate, was executed at Constantinople on 25th April 1819.

*Authorities.*] *Chandler's Travels*.—*Dodwell's Classical Tour*. London, 1819, 2 vols. 4to.—*Goodison's Essay on the I. islands*. London, 1822, 8vo.—*Turner's Levant—Hist. et Descript. des Isles Ioniennes*. Par M. Bory de Saint-Vincent. Paris, 1823.—*Anderson's Observations*. Boston, 1830, 8vo.—*Dary's Notes and Observations*. London, 1842, 2 vols. 8vo.—*Parliamentary Reports*.

**IORDANOW**, or **JORDANOW**, a town of Galicia, in the circle and 22 m. SE of Wadowice, on the r. bank of the Skawa, and 30 m. SSW of Crakow.

**IORI**. See **YORI**.

**IOROIS**, a town and parish of Russia in Europe, in the grand duchy of Finland, gov. and 54 m. S of Kuopio and district of Nedre-Savolax, 54 m. NW of Nyzlott, and to the W of Lake Haapavesi.

**IOROZ** (CAPE), a headland of Turkey in Asia, in the pash. of Trebizonde, on the Black sea, between Trebizonde and Tireboli, in N lat. 41° 6' 55", E long. 39° 29' 20".

**IOS**. See **NIO**.

**IOSCO**, a township of Livingston co., in the state of Michigan. Pop. in 1840, 395.

**IOSLOWITZ**, or **IANOSLAWICE**, a town of Moravia, in the circle and 11 m. SE of Znaïm, near the r. bank of the Taya. Pop. 1,640. It has a castle; and in the vicinity is a large rural establishment, celebrated for its cheese. The vine is extensively cultivated in the locality.

**IOSS**, **IASCHAU**, **IASZO**, **IASOW**, or **JASOW**, a town of Hungary, in the comitat of Abaujar, 14 m. WSW of Kaschau, and 32 m. SE of Leutschau, in a valley, on the l. bank of the Bodva. Pop. 1,581. It has a castle, a handsome Catholic church, a priory with a handsome church, and a valuable library, and possesses several manufactories of pottery. In the environs are quarries of marble, and mines of copper and iron.

**IOUCHANSK**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov., district, and 26 m. WSW of Simbirsk.

**IOUDOMO**, or **IUDOMO**, a river of Russia in Asia, in the district of Okhotsk, which has its source on the W side of the Okhotsk mountains, 42 m. NW of the town of that name; runs with considerable sinuosities to the W; passes Ioudomskoi-Krest, and after a rapid course of about 180 m., joins the Maïa, on the r. bank, on the confines of the gov. of Yakutsk.

**IOUDOMSKOI-KREST**, a town of Russia in Asia, in the district and 129 m. WNW of Okhotsk, on the l. bank of the Ioudomo, and on the road from Ikhotsk to Yakutsk. It has a chapel, and possesses a considerable transit trade.

**IOUDOUNTZICHKI**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 66 m. NE of Vilna, district and 21 m. E of Sventziani.

**IOUDOUPA**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 102 m. NNE of Vilna, and 66 m. NE of Vilkomir.

**IOUG**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Vologda, which has its source in the district and 33 m. E of Nikolsk; runs at first SW, then turns N past Nikolsk, then NE; and at last taking a NW direction, enters the district of Veliko-Oustiong, and a little below the Veliko-Oustiong unites with the Soukhona to form the Dwina. It has a total course of about 240 m., and receives the Moloma and the Louza on the r., and on the l. the Chargenga.

**IOUGAN** (BOLCHOI), a river of Russia in Asia, in the gov. of Tobolsk, which has its source in the S part of the district of Surgut; runs NNW, and joins the Obi, on the l. bank, 21 m. SW of Surgut, and after a course of about 240 m.

**IOUKAGHIRS**, or **IUKAGHIRS**, a people of Russia in Asia, who inhabit the E part of the prov. of Yakutsk, between the Korinks on the S, the Yakuts on the W, the country of the Tchukutchi on the E, and the Frozen ocean on the N. The principal rivers along the banks of which they are found are the Kolima, Alazela, Indighirka, and Iuna. They are divided into tribes, and resemble the Tungus family in many of their habits. They live in villages during the intensity of winter, and in the months of June and July, which form the fishing-season; the rest of the year they devote to the chase. They speak Russ., and conform in costume to the Russians in the vicinity. Christianity has been introduced among them, but they remain addicted to many of the superstitions of Shamanism. Their frequent wars with neighbouring tribes, and the prevalence among them of virulent disease, have much diminished their numbers.

**IOUKHNOV**, or **JOUKNOV**, a district and town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 138 m. E of Smolensk, on the r. bank of the Ougra. Pop. 500. It contains 2 churches and a convent. The district lies in the E part of the gov., and is very fertile.

**IOUKOPA**, or **IUKOPA**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Tver and district of Ostachkov. It has its source on the confines of the gov. of Smolensk, to the S of Barsuki; runs N; and throws itself into the Volga, near the l. bank, near the place

where that river issues from Lake Peno, and after a course of about 45 m.

**IOUNASKA**, or **EUNASKA**, a small island in the Aleutian archipelago, between Behring's sea and the Pacific, to the SW of the island of Oumnak, NE of that of Amliia, and a little to the E of the island of Amukhta, in N lat.  $52^{\circ} 40'$ .

**IUPANOVSKAIA - SOPKA**, **JOUPONOVA**, or **JUPONOVA**, a volcano of Russia in Asia, in Kamtschatka, 40 m. N of Petropavlosk. It does not emit flames, but smokes continually, and occasions frequent earthquakes. Its height is about 3,018 ft., and gives rise to the Keminta, an affluent of the Ioupanova, a small river which flows into the sea of Kamtschatka.

**IROUPKOV**, or **JOUPKOV**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 87 m. SW of Kiev, district and 40 m. ESE of Makhnovka.

**IOURA**, or **JURA**, a river which has its source in the Russian gov. of Vilna, in the NW part of the district of Rossiena; runs S into the prov. of East Prussia; and throws itself into the Niemen, on the r. bank, 11 m. ESE of Tilsit, and after a total course of about 78 m. Its principal affluent is the Sheshura, which it receives on the l.

**IOURATZICHKI**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 60 m. SSE of Vilna, district and 34 m. S of Ochmiana.

**IOURAVKA**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Voronej, district and 15 m. N of Bogoutchar, and 36 m. SE of Pavlosk, on the l. bank of the Don.

**IOURBOURG**, or **GEORGENBOURG**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 81 m. WNW of Vilna, district and 27 m. SSW of Rossiena, on the r. bank of the Niemen, on which river it has a port. It is one of the most important custom-places on the Niemen, and carries on an extensive trade with Prussia.

**IOURDANI**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Vilna, district and 57 m. WNW of Rossiena, and 30 m. SW of Telch.

**IOURIEV - POLSKOI**, a district and town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 39 m. NW of Vladimir. The town, which derives its name from the extensive plain in which it is situated, is on the Kolokcha, and contains 5 churches and a cloister. It has an extensive manufactory of silk, a calico-printing-mill, and several tanneries. Pop. 1,800. The exports consist principally in linen, leather, silk, and ironmongery. The environs are adorned with numerous gardens. The district occupies the NW part of the gov., and is generally flat. It contains numerous marshes and extensive forests, but the soil is fertile, and produces hemp and flax in great abundance. Spinning and linen-bleaching form the chief branches of local industry.

**IOURIEVETZ-POVOLSKOI**, a district and town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 96 m. ESE of Kostromo, on the r. bank of the Volga, at the confluence of the Unja. Pop. 2,500. It has 3 churches and a cloister, and possesses an active trade in tallows, hops, and corn. Fairs are held several times a-year. The district, which is situated in the E part of the gov., is well-wooded and well-cultivated. It has extensive manufactories of coarse linen and common cloth.

**IOURKINA**, a village of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 63 m. WNW of Kaluga, district and 17 m. NW of Musalsk. It has a glass-work.

**IOURZEN**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Orenburg, which has its source in the Ural mountains, near the source of the river of that name, runs first NW, then W, and joins the Ousa, on the l. bank, 12 m. above Fort-Yeldiatzkaia, after a course of about 150 m. Its banks contain rich mines of iron.

**IOUTZVIN**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Podolia, district and 10 m. WSW of Vinizta, and 90 m. NE of Kamenetz.

**IOWA**, one of the federal states of North America, formerly a portion of the Missouri territory, and lying immediately N of the state of that name, between the parallels of  $40^{\circ} 30'$  and  $43^{\circ} 30'$  N lat., and the meridians of  $90^{\circ} 20'$  and  $96^{\circ} 59'$  W long.; bounded on the W and N by the Western territories; on the E by the Mississippi, which separates it from Wisconsin and Illinois; and on the S by the state of Missouri; and the lower course of the Des Moines river. It is 270 m. long, and about 200 m. broad; and has an area of 50,914 sq. m., or 32,584,960 acres.

*Physical features.* The general features of this state present much of what is called 'rolling land,' without being mountainous or even hilly. An elevated table-land or plateau extends through a considerable portion of the country, dividing the streams which flow respectively into the Missouri and Mississippi. The margins of these rivers and streams are thickly timbered; but the rest of the state is open prairie, with alternations of woodland of some extent, which diversify and enliven the scenery. About three-fourths of all the lands are prairie,—some level and others rolling; some clothed in thick grass suitable for grazing farms, while hazel thickets and sassafras shrubs invest others with perennial verdure. The soil is universally good, being of a rich black mould; in the prairies this is sometimes mixed with sandy loam, and sometimes with red clay and gravel.—The Mississippi borders the E of this state, and is navigable for the entire distance. The Des Moines waters the S section of the country, and falls into the Mississippi, after forming for some distance the SW boundary of the state. It is navigable for 100 m. from its mouth. The Iowa is a navigable stream traversing a large portion of the state. Besides these there are numerous minor rivers and streams falling into either the Missouri or Mississippi.

*Climate and productions.* The salubrity of the climate here depends much upon locality, but the therm. does not range so widely as under similar latitudes E of the Alleghanies. It is exempt, too, from those searching E winds so fatal in their effects to the pulmonary invalid in the older states. Along the low bottom-lands of the rivers and water-courses, which are occasionally subject to inundation, there will be liability and predisposition to bilious diseases, fever, ague, &c.; but upon the uplands and rolling prairies, the air is salubrious and free from miasma. Periodic breezes blow over these elevated portions of the country as regularly as from the ocean between the tropics.—The buffalo, which formerly roamed here over the flowery prairies, is now almost extinct; but the elk, though much diminished in numbers, is still hunted in the recesses of the state. Panthers and wild cats are sometimes seen, and the grey wolf still lurks about the remote settlements. The common prairie-wolf is a denizen of these regions, and proves mischievous among the sheep and hogs. In the wooded districts, the black bear is found. Foxes, raccoons, porcupines, and squirrels of various kinds, are numerous. The otter and bear still inhabit the unsettled parts about the rivers and lakes. Deer are abundant, their flesh affording food, and their skins clothing to the pioneer of the wilderness. The musk-rat is found in every part of the state, and common rabbits abound. Wild turkeys are found in large flocks; prairie-hens, grouse, partridge, woodcocks, &c., abound. Geese, ducks, loons, pelicans, plovers, snipes, &c., are among the aquatic birds that visit the rivers, lakes, and sluices. Bees

swarm in the forests. The rivers and creeks abound with fish; and the insect tribe are varied and beautiful.—With regard to the mineral productions of I., “a review of the resources and capabilities of this country,” says Dr. Owen, “induces me to say with confidence, that 10,000 miners could find profitable employment within its confines. The lead-mines alone afford as much of that metal as the whole of Europe, excepting Great Britain, and their capabilities are unbounded. Zinc occurs in fissures along with the lead, chiefly in the form of electric calamine, and is found in cellular masses. In some diggings this mineral appears in a state of carbonate, and in others as a sulphuret. Iron ore is abundant; but as yet, on account of the scarcity of pop., and want of capital, but little iron, either bar or cast, has been manufactured. The mineral region is principally confined to the neighbourhood of Dubuque, and along the river heights of the Upper Mississippi.”—Wool-growing is receiving from year to year more attention. Sheep, instead of being slaughtered as formerly, are annually imported, and as fast as their increase exceeds their pasturage, are driven further into the wilderness. The wool is of superior staple, but suffers in the foreign market on account of the unclean condition in which it is put up and shipped.—The raising of hogs is also one of the most profitable employments. They are raised with little or no trouble, having a boundless range in forest and prairie, and feeding upon the natural productions of those regions. When wanted for market, the herds are hunted up, each owner having his respective mark; and after feeding the animals on Indian corn for a few weeks, they are sufficiently fattened for use.—The agricultural productions of I. are similar in every respect to those of the western territories. The cereal grains and root crops of every description grow luxuriantly, and the fruits of temperate climates find it a congenial locality. Tobacco also proves a successful staple, and on the rich alluvial margins of the Des Moines river, grows to perfection, and of a very excellent quality. The cultivation of the castor bean (*Ricinus communis*) has of late been introduced, and succeeds well.—In 1840, the capital invested in manufactures in this young state amounted to nearly 200,000 dollars. This was when the pop. was scarcely one-third its present force, and before sufficient time had been allowed the first settlers to determine on their situation and prospects. The value of mills, manufactories, distilleries, carding-machines, and tan-yards, in 1849, was 432,238 d. The principal articles made are those used by agriculturists, as carriages, harness, &c. Home-made or domestic goods are necessarily manufactured to a large amount.

**Population.]** I. is rapidly progressing in population. The emigration from Europe, especially, has been immense. The pop., which in 1840 was 43,112, had increased to 192,247 in 1850. There are few Negroes in I.: the whole number does not exceed 300. The pop. is almost altogether European. England, Ireland, Germany, Denmark, &c., have all contributed to the pop. of this state. The Sioux, Sacs, and Foxes, and other tribes of Indians, still roam over more than one-half of the state.

The position of I., and its intersection by fine streams flowing into the Mississippi, will contribute to elevate it to consideration as a commercial state. As yet it enjoys no direct foreign commerce, nor is it probable that any great amount will ever centre here. It will, however, gradually become a great market for the manufactures of other countries, and the more eastern states. I. has a highly creditable university, but being only a young state, we cannot expect any great progress in relation to the general education of the people. The permanent school-

fund in 1848 amounted to 132,908 d. The statistics of the churches, in 1847, give the following results: the Methodists had 53 travelling and 95 local preachers, and 7,909 members; the Baptists, 36 churches, with 913 communicants; Congregationalists, 34 churches, and 910 church-members; and the Protestant Episcopalians and the Roman Catholics had each a missionary bishop, and several churches. The Presbyterians, Universalists, Anti-mission Baptists, &c., had also a few congregations.

**Government.]** The constitution of I. provides that every adult white male citizen,—idiots, insane, and persons convicted of infamous crimes, excepted,—and who has resided in the state 6 months, and in the co. in which he offers his vote, shall enjoy suffrage. The general-assembly consists of a senate and house-of-representatives; and holds its sessions biennially, commencing on the first Monday in December. The representatives must be at least 21 years of age, and have resided in the state one year, and in the district one month previous to election. Senators must be 25 years of age,—one-half their number being elected biennially. The governor is chosen by a plurality of votes, for 4 years. He must be at least 30 years of age, and have resided in the state 2 years next preceding his election. In case of the death or disability of the governor, the secretary-of-state is invested with his powers. A secretary-of-state, auditor, and treasurer, are chosen by the people for the term of 2 years; and a superintendent of public instruction for 3 years.—The funded debt in 1850 was 79,442 dollars. The ordinary annual expenditure is 25,000 d. The state-tax in 1849 was 47,295 d.; in 1850, 56,558 d.—The judiciary consists of a supreme court and circuit-courts. The supreme court consists of a chief justice, and two associate justices, elected by the joint vote of the general-assembly, for 6 years. This court has only appellate jurisdiction, and the power to correct errors in law. The judges of the lower courts are elected by the voters of each district, for 5 years. There are also co.-courts, and justices-of-the-peace.

**History.]** I. formerly a portion of French Louisiana, came into the possession of the United States in 1803. It was erected into a separate territorial government in 1838; and having formed for itself a constitution, and performed all the other requirements of the national laws, was admitted as a state of the Union in Dec. 1846. It has of late rapidly filled up; and the stream of immigration, which is now flowing westward, will at no distant period swell the pop. of this state to millions.

**IOWA**, a county in the SW part of the state of Wisconsin, U. S., comprising an area of 1,300 sq. m., bounded on the N by Wisconsin river, and watered by several small tributaries of that river, and by Pekatonokee and Fave rivers. It has some fine prairie-land, and contains copper and lead ore in great abundance. Pop. in 1840, 3,978; in 1850, 9,576. Its capital is Mineral point.—Also a town of Johnson co., and the cap. of the territory of Iowa, 33 m. WNW of Bloomington, 86 m. SSW of Dubuque, and 75 m. NW of Burlington, on the E bank of the Iowa river, which is here navigable at all seasons. Pop. in 1840, 800; in 1850, 2,308.

**IOZEFOW**, a town of Poland, in the wojwod and 38 m. WSW of Lublin, on the r. bank of the Vistula. Pop. 860.—Also a town in the wojwod and 62 m. SSE of Lublin, obwod and 20 m. SW of Zamosz. It contains a Greek church and a Latin school. Pop. 775.

**IPA**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Minsk, which has its source in the district and 30 m. S of Bobrisk; runs SSW; and throws itself into the Pripet, on the l. bank, 11 m. above Mozir, after a total course of about 75 m.

**IPANI.** See YPANE.

**IPANEMA**, or IGPANEMA, a river of Brazil, in the



prov. of Pernambuco, which flows S, and joins the Rio São-Francisco, on the l. bank, about 90 m. above the entrance of that river into the Atlantic.—Also a river of the prov. of São-Paulo, in the district of Sorocaba, and an affluent of a river of that name.

**IPARANNA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Para, on the r. bank of the Rio Negro, and at the N angle of the confluence of the Uçagari. Its inhabitants are chiefly Indians of the Baniba tribe.

**IPATEVA (SERRA)**, a chain of mountains in Brazil, on the confines of the provs. of Minas-Geraes and São-Paulo, and to the N of the town of the last name. It detaches itself from the Mantiqueira on the S, and runs SW towards the sources of the Ti-baia, a distance of about 24 m. One of its ramifications runs SE, separates the upper basin of the Tieti from that of the Parahibo, and joins the Serro-do-Mar.

**IPAVA**, a small lake of Venezuela, in the dep. of the Orinoco, in about N lat.  $5^{\circ} 30'$ , W long.  $65^{\circ} 15'$ . It is supposed by some to be the true head of the Orinoco river.

**IPEICK**, or **PECHIA**, a town of Turkey in Europe, in Albania, capital of a jurisdiction, in the sanj. and 60 m. ENE of Scutari, on the Bistritz, and near the r. bank of the White Drino.

**IPHOFEN**, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of Middle Franconia, 12 m. NW of Markt-Bibert, and 32 m. NNW of Anspach. It is surrounded by a wall, flanked with towers, and has a church and an hospital. Pop. 2,069. The vine is extensively cultivated in the environs.

**IPIALES**, a river of Ecuador, in the dep. of Pasto, which descends from the volcano of Cumbal, and forms one of the head-streams of the Guaytara.

**IPING**, a parish in Sussex,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  m. WNW of Midhurst, on the Rother. Area 1,925 acres. Pop. 438.

**IPIRANGA**, a town of Brazil, in the prov. and near the town of São-Paulo.

**IPITANGA**, a town of Brazil, in the prov. and district of Bahia.—Also a river in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro.

**IPOEIRA**, a large lake of Brazil, in the prov. of Goyaz. It is of great depth, and abounds with fish. The river by which it discharges itself flows into the Maranhão.

**IPOJUCA**, a parish of Brazil, in the prov. of Pernambuco, district of Cabo-de-Santo-Agostinho, on the l. bank of a river of the same name. The inhabitants, about 800 in number, find their chief employment in agriculture. The river I. rises in the Serra-dos-Cairires-Velhos, near the source of the Capibaribe, and runs parallel to that river for the distance of 150 m. through extensive cotton and sugar-growing districts, to the ocean, into which it discharges itself to the S of Cape Santo-Agostinho, in S lat.  $8^{\circ} 23'$ .—Also a small river of the prov. of Parahiba, in the district of Alhandra. It issues from a place named Mareacão, runs through Lake Abiahi, and falls into the ocean 6 m. N of the mouth of Goyanna.

**IPOLY**, or **EPEL**, a river of Hungary, which has its source in Mount Pietrova, in the N part of the comitat of Neograd; passes through its centre, enters the comitat of Honth, and joins the Danube, on the l. bank, a little below Gran, and after a course in a generally SW direction of about 90 m. The principal towns which it passes are Balassa-Gyarmath and Ipoly-Sagh.

**IPOLY-SAGH**. See **SAGH (IPOLY)**.

**IPORUNGA**, a town and new parish of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Paulo and district of Apiahi. Pop. 300. Mining, agriculture, and the rearing of cattle form the chief branches of local industry.

**POTESCHTY**, a village of Turkey in Europe,

in Great Wallachia, in the bezirk of Sekujani, on the Braowa.

**IPOUT**, a river of Russia in Europe, which has its source in the gov. of Moghilev, in the district and 9 m. E of Klimovitchi; enters into the gov. of Smolensk; runs S into that of Tchernigov, in which it bathes the walls of Souraj and Novo-Miesto; thence re-enters the gov. of Moghilev, and joins the Soj a little above Novo-Bielitsa, and after a course of 240 m. Its banks are covered with wood, and afford excellent timber for the docks of Riga, as well as for the ports of the Dnieper.

**IPANE-GUACU** and **IPANE-MIRIM**, two small rivers of Brazil, in the prov. of Matto-Grosso. The former descends from the Serra Maracaju; is joined by the Ippane-Mirim; pursues its course through uncultivated lands, a distance of about 75 m., and unites with the Paraguaia, on the l. bank, 90 m. above the confluence of the Correntes.

**IPPLEPEN**, a parish in Devonshire,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  m. SSW of Abbot's-Newton. Area 4,675 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,164; in 1851, 1,021.

**IPPOLITTS**, or **HIPPOLITS**, a parish in Hertfordshire, 2 m. SE by S of Hitchin. Area 2,970 acres. Pop. in 1831, 874; in 1851, 965.

**IPPU**, or **IPU**, a town of Sumatra, on the SW coast of the island, 90 m. NW of Bencoolen, at the mouth of a river. It has an active export trade in copper.

**IPS**, or **YVES**, a river of the archduchy of Austria, in the upper circle of the Wienerwalde, which has its source in the S confines of the archduchy, 6 m. WNW of Maria-Zell; runs NW, passing Lunz; thence bends first SW, then W; at Hollenstein takes a N direction, flows past Waidhofen, and finally making a turn to the NE, unites with the Danube, on the l. bank, at the town of the same name, and after a course of about 75 m.—The town is 29 m. W of St. Polten, and 60 m. W of Vienna. Pop. 1,952. It is small, but well-built, and has a large hospital and a military school. It was formerly noted for its pottery. It is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient *Pons Isis* or *Isipontum*.

**IPSA**, a town and port of the island of Corfu, on a bay of the same name, 7 m. NNW of Corfu.

**IPSALA**, a town of Turkey in Europe, in Rumelia, in the sanj. and 50 m. NNW of Gallipoli, and 24 m. SSW of Dimotika, in the angle formed by the junction of a river of the same name with the Maritza. It contains a mosque, several baths, a large caravanserai, and numerous gardens. This place was one of the first in which the Turks established themselves in Europe. The name is said to be derived from the word *Ibsala*, signifying 'first prayer,' Gasi-Suleiman Pasha having here offered his first prayer on entering Rumelia at the head of his troops.—The river I. takes its rise in the E extremity of the Tekir-Dagh, flows along the S side of that mountain range, and has a total course of about 39 m.

**IPSAMBOL**. See **ABU-SAMBUL**.

**IPSARA**, **PSARA**, or **PSYRA**, an island of the Archipelago, 8 m. NW of the island of Scio. It is 6 m. in length from NW to SE, and nearly equal in breadth; and is traversed longitudinally by a chain of mountains, which gradually declines in height towards the S. Their highest summit, Mount Elias, is in N lat.  $38^{\circ} 35' 34''$ , and E long.  $25^{\circ} 35' 44''$ . The outline of the coast presents three large promontories: Point East and Point Alexander on the NW, and Point St. Nicholas on the S. A little to the E of the latter is a good port. On the NW is a bay, the entrance to which is divided by a rock into two channels, and is incapable of admitting large vessels. This bay is noted as the first landing place of the Turks. The interior of the island presents little else

than barren rock, with here and there a few patches of verdure and cultivation. It contains several wells, of which the water of one only is fit for use. The inhabitants, about 400 in number, are chiefly Greeks.—The chief town, which bears the same name, is situated on the S coast, at the head of a bay which forms a good port. It once contained 3,000 inhabitants, but in 1824 it was totally destroyed by the Turks. The name *Psyra* or *Psyris*, given to this island by Strabo, denotes its sterility. It appears to have been very early inhabited; a temple to Bacchus having formerly occupied the site on which a monastery now stands. The present inhabitants form the residue of the once flourishing colony established here about a century since by a small number of Greeks, who had sought in this island a refuge from the domination of the Turks.—To the NE of Ipsara is the small uninhabited island of Anti-Psara or Psara-Poulo.

IPSDEN, a parish in Oxfordshire, 9 m. WNW of Henley-upon-Thames. Area 3,374 acres. Pop. in 1831, 582; in 1851, 629.

IPSERA, or ISPIRA, a sanjak and town of Turkey in Asia, in the pash. of Erzerum. The sanj. lies in the N part of the pash., and is watered by several rivers, of which the Chorak is the principal. The town is on the l. bank of the Chorak, opposite the confluence of the Gardje-Bogas-Khewi, in a fertile and well-cultivated district, 54 m. NNW of Erzerum. It is of small extent. The environs are celebrated for their honey.

IPSHEIM, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of Middle Franconia, presidial and 5 m. ENE of Windsheim, and 18 m. N of Anspach, on the r. bank of the Aisch. It has 2 castles.

IPSICA, a valley of Sicily, in the S part of the prov. of Syracuse and district of Modica, extending from 5 m. SE of the town of the latter name to Spacafurno, a distance of about 6 m.

IPSITZ, or YBSITZ, a town of the archduchy of Austria, in the upper circle of the Weinerwalde, 6 m. E of Waidhofen, and 42 m. WSW of St. Polten, on the r. bank of the Oisbach, a little above the confluence of that river with the Ips. Pop. 414. It has manufactories of hardware. In the environs are mines of iron and coal, and quarries of marble.

IPSELEY, a parish in Warwickshire, 6 m. NNW of Alcester, at the source of the Arrow. Area 2,514 acres. Pop. in 1831, 830; in 1851, 1,099.

IPSTONE, or IBSTONE, a parish in Buckinghamshire, 6½ m. NW of Henley-upon-Thames. Area 1,112 acres. Pop. in 1831, 313; in 1851, 10.

IPSTONES, a parish and village in Staffordshire, 4½ m. NNE of Cheadle, on the Uttoxeter canal. Area of p. 6,490 acres. Pop. in 1851, 1,292.

IPSWICH, an ancient borough, and an inland port and market-town, the capital of Suffolk, situated on the Orwell, at the influx of the Gipping, and on the line of the Eastern Counties railway, by which it is 66 m. NE of London, and 24 m. SE of Bury-St.-Edmunds. The ancient liberty of I., coincident with the boundaries of the parl. borough, has a circuit of 19 m., and an area of 8,450 acres, about 360 of which form the bed of the river Orwell, and are covered at high water. Pop. in 1801, 10,401; in 1831, 20,600; in 1851, 32,914. A small central portion only of this extensive district is occupied by the town; the remainder consists of large farms and gentlemen's seats. The limits of the municipal borough laid down in the boundary report restricted it to an area of 1,720 acres. Pop. in 1841, 19,824.—The lines of communication by land between I. and other parts of the country are extremely numerous—no less than 17 different roads entering the borough boundary, and meeting in the town. The Gipping was rendered navigable for barges from hence to Stow-

market in 1792, and has been sometimes called the Stowmarket canal. The Orwell, immediately below Stoke bridge, assumes the character of an estuary, and continues from thence, in a SE direction, to the North sea at Harwich, distant about 12 m., in a bed varying from a ½ m. to upwards of 1 m. in breadth at high water. At Harwich it unites with the Stour. The channel of this river has been straightened, deepened, and much improved, since 1805; and vessels of about 200 tons burden, or drawing 12 and 13 ft. water, can now come up to the quays at high water. Many of this size, however, prefer to unload in Downham-reach, about 3 m. below the town. A new dock has been recently formed, and other improvements made on this harbour. Steamers ply between I. and London,—a distance of 104 m. by the ordinary water-course.—The town occupies a healthy situation; the southern aspect and protection of the hills behind it, to the N and E, contributing to the mildness, and the moderate elevation and sandy crag or gravelly soil on which it stands, to the dryness of the locality. Considerable improvements have been made on I. within the last 40 years; and on the whole, although still containing many old-fashioned houses, it presents a flourishing appearance. The most valuable premises in the town are the warehouses, &c., situated near the common quay, and along the banks of the Orwell. There is a theatre in the town, and the assembly-rooms are very handsomely fitted up. The parish churches are chiefly ancient edifices; but some of them are spacious and handsome, and contain monuments of interest. The exterior of the new courts is very elegant and chastely ornamented, but the plan and arrangement is said to be defective. The county-jail and house-of-correction were erected in 1790, on the plan of Mr. Howard, in an open area of considerable extent in the town. It is enclosed by a wall built in a sunken fosse, with an iron *chevaux de frise* round the top. The enclosure forms a perfect square, of which the sides are 260 ft. The hall-of-commerce, a building appropriated to the business of the customs and excise, is a fine new building, 125 ft. in length and 44 ft. in depth. I. is pre-eminent in educational endowments and other charitable as well as literary institutions.—The corporate revenues, previous to 1835, consisting of a water-rental, with other rents, and town and port dues, amounted in all to upwards of £2,000 per ann. The water-rental alone produced £700. The revenue now amounts to upwards of £5,000.—I. sends 2 members to parliament. The number of electors registered at the general election in 1837 was 1,418; in 1848, 1,685. I. is a polling-place, and the principal place of election for the E division of the co.—During the 15th and 16th cents., I. was an extensive and flourishing port. During the middle and close of the 17th cent., its commerce received a severe injury in the breaking up of its manufactories of woollen cloths and of sail-cloth. Within the last 20 years, however, it has been rapidly reviving. The amount of tonnage in 1820 was about 5,000 tons; in 1827 it had increased to 8,120; and in 1836 to no less than 10,000 tons burthen, distributed in about 150 vessels, manned by nearly 500 persons, and employed in its coasting and foreign trade. In 1847, it possessed 182 vessels = 14,434 tons. The principal business of I. at present consists in the corn trade. About 80,000 qrs. of malt and coal are annually sent to London alone, besides the grain and flour sent thither and to other parts of the kingdom.—The corn trade alone of I. averages in all 300,000 qrs. per ann. Upwards of 40,000 chaldrons of coals are annually brought to I., and from thence supplied to the W parts of the co., by means of the Gipping, or Stowmarket canal. This

river also brings down vast quantities of agricultural produce from these parts of the country, and serves for the conveyance of almost all heavy goods. A general foreign trade of some extent is also carried on. The trade with the Baltic is increasing; and the importation of timber from Norway, &c., has been promoted by I. being made a bonded port for foreign timber. The bonded warehouses here, however, have been hitherto limited to wine and spirits, wood goods, barilla, and corn. The gross amount of customs duty collected at this port in 1838 was £38,864; in 1839, £41,857; in 1846, £37,012; and in 1847, £30,406. The foreign vessels with cargoes entered inwards, were for 1845, 62; 1846, 79; 1847, 71; with cargoes outwards, 1845, 14; 1846, 5; 1847, 14. The number of vessels with cargoes inwards, was in 1845, 1,443; 1846, 1,404, with a tonnage of 96,097; 1847, 1,683, with a tonnage of 121,673. With cargoes outwards, the returns were, for 1845, 1,015; 1846, 915, with a tonnage of 51,457; 1847, 926, with a tonnage of 53,826. This marked impetus to the coasting-trade is due to the formation of the railway to Bury, above 300 vessels having, since the opening of that line, discharged cargoes of coals at the railway wharf for the inland parts of the co. The number of registered vessels belonging to the port was, in 1845, 179, with a tonnage of 14,524; 1846, 183, with a tonnage of 14,544; 1847, 181, with a tonnage of 14,611. The light dues for 1846 amounted to £1,607; for 1847, £1,985.—Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent in two yards. In the town there are two very extensive iron-foundries, a manufactory of tobacco and snuff, extensive breweries, and also very extensive soap-boiling establishments. The manufacture of hemp, flax, and cotton, is now all but extinct here; but there are still a few looms, employed on goods made solely from cotton, the last and sole remnant of the once extensive cotton weaving in this part of England. Messrs. Ransome & May, who unite implement-making with mechanical engineering, possess an establishment which is one of the most extensive and well-arranged of the kind in the kingdom, covering 10 acres of ground, and employing from 800 to 1,000 men, nearly one-half of whom are engaged constantly in the department of agricultural implements. Three fairs are annually held here. The lamb fair, held on 22d Aug., is of great importance to all the neighbouring cos.

**IPSWICH**, a recently founded town in Stanley co., New S. Wales, on Moreton bay. It is said to be rapidly advancing in importance.

**IPSWICH**, a town and port of Essex co., in Massachusetts, U. S., 26 m. NE by N of Boston, situated on both sides of a river of the same name, 2 m. above its mouth. Pop. 3,000. The shipping belonging to this port in 1840 amounted to 3,739 tons.

**IPUCA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, and comarca of Cabo-Frio, in the Cordelheira-dos-Aimores, and near the source of a river of the same name.—Also a v. lower down the same river. Their united pop. is estimated at about 3,000. The locality is unhealthy, but produces rice, mandioc, millet, sugar, and coffee, in great abundance. Timber forms an important article of trade with Rio-de-Janeiro.—Also a small river in the same prov., which unites with the Rio-de-São-João, on the l. bank, a little below the outlet of Lake Juturnahiba. It passes in its course Velha, Ganilhosa, and Ipuca; and is navigable for canoes a distance of about 15 m.

**IPU-GRANDE**, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Ceara, and comarca of Sobral, 210 m. to the SW of Fortaleza. The district, which is of great extent, is bounded on the N by those of Viçosa and Januária, and on the W by the prov. of Piauí; and comprises

a pop. of 8,000. Agriculture and the rearing of cattle form the chief branches of local industry.

**IQUI**, an island of Japan, in N lat. 31° 30', E long. 132°.

**IQUIQUE**, a small port of Peru, in the prov. of Tarapaca, 11 m. NW of Grueso point. It is a poor place, with a pop. of about 500; but is the only village on the coast of the prov., the other places named in charts being merely headlands, beaches, islands, &c., occasionally visited by fishermen from I. in search of eels, seals, and sea-otters. [Bollaert.] There is neither wood, water, nor vegetation here. Provisions are brought from the interior, and from Chili, and water from Pisagua, 45 m. to the N; but the port has a considerable trade from the vicinity of the silver-mines of Huantajaya and Santa Rosa, which are respectively 12 and 17 m. from I., and the large cargoes of saltpetre which are here shipped for England. Extensive districts in the vicinity of this place are covered with an efflorescence consisting principally of nitrate of soda. This can be brought to England at less than half the freight of the East Indian nitrate of potash or saltpetre; and as its manufacture is simple, it has already supplanted that of the potash saltpetre of the East. The deposit of this valuable salt is said to exist in this quarter of S. America, on the W margin of the Pampa-de-Tamarugal, in beds extending over more than 200 sq. m.—Nearly opposite the town of I. lies a small island of the same name, in S lat. 20° 12' 30", W long. 70° 14' 30", which Frezier, who visited this coast in 1712-14, describes as yielding large supplies of guano to the farmers and vine-dressers of all the neighbouring districts. His words are: "The island of I. is also inhabited by Indians and Blacks, who are there employed to gather guano, being a yellowish earth, thought to be the dung of birds, because, besides that it stinks like that of the cormorants, there have been feathers of birds found very deep in it: however, it is hard to conceive how so great a quantity of it could be gathered there; for during the space of a hundred years past they have laden ten or twelve ships every year with it, to manure the land, as shall be observed lower; and it is scarce perceivable that the height of the island is abated, although it is not above three-quarters of a league in compass; and that, besides what is carried away by the sea, they load abundance of mules with it for the vines and ploughed lands of Tarapaca, Pica, and other neighbouring places, which makes some believe that it is a peculiar sort of earth. For my part, I am not of that opinion; for it is true the sea-fowls are there so numerous, that it may be said, without romancing, that the air is sometimes darkened with them." This deposit has been removed; but sea-birds, in immense flocks, including cormorants, pelicans, boobies, gulls, and shags, still make this island, and the rocks along the adjacent coast, a favourite haunt.

**IQUITOS**, a town of Assuay, at the confluence of the Nanag with the Amazon, and 30 m. NE of San Joaquim-de-Omaguas.

**IRA**, a township of Rutland co., in the state of Vermont, U. S., 70 m. SSW of Montpelier. It has a mountainous surface, and is watered by Castleton river, and Ira and Furnace brooks. The soil affords excellent pasturage. Pop. in 1840, 431.—Also a township of Cayuga co., in the state of New York, 169 m. W of Albany. It has an undulating surface, and its soil, consisting of sandy loam, is generally fertile. Pop. 2,283.—Also a township of St. Clair co., in the state of Michigan. Pop. 204.

**IRACUBA**, a small town of French Guayana, on the Atlantic, at the mouth of a river of the same name, 75 m. WNW of Cayenne.

**IRAJA**, an old parish of Brazil, in the prov. and



district of Rio-de-Janeiro, bordered on the E by the bay of Niterohi, and watered by two rivers of the same name. Its inhabitants, about 5,000 in number, are chiefly agriculturists. It contains 8 churches, and has numerous sugar-houses and distilleries of brandy.

**IRAK-AJEMI, IRAK-ADJEMI, or IRAKU-I'-AJAM,** [*i. e.* 'the Persian Irak,'] the largest and one of the most valuable provinces of Western Persia, comprising the cap., Ispahan, and several of the finest cities of the kingdom. It forms the greater part of the ancient *Media*; and is bounded on the N by Azerd-bijan, Ghilan, and Mazanderan; on the E by Khorassan and the Great Salt desert; on the S by Fars and Khuzistan; and on the W by Kurdistan. It politically comprises a considerable portion of the Great Desert, and of the countries which enclose it on the W and N. The surface is entirely mountainous; its valleys are of varying length, but seldom exceed 10 or 15 m. in breadth. The mountain-chains are barren, and destitute of timber. They run almost invariably from W to E; and either gradually sink into the Desert, or throw out branches into the provs. of Kerinan and Khorassan. The valleys are, for the most part, uncultivated, excepting in the vicinity of the villages; but the soil is in general good. To the S of Ispahan, or the parallel of  $32^{\circ} 30' N$ , the mountains of Kurdistan terminate abruptly towards the table-land of Iran, and the country which lies between them and the Desert—a space of more than 100 m.—consists of long valleys, running W and E, and terminating in the Desert. The most arid part of I. is the SE corner of the prov., between Ispahan and the city of Yezd in the Kohistan. To the N of Ispahan, as far as N lat.  $36^{\circ}$ , there is a mountainous district, containing wide, fertile, and well-watered valleys; and E of this extends a plain about 40 or 50 m. wide, traversed by several broad and low ridges, and terminating on the border of the Desert. That portion of I.-Ajemi which lies N of the parallel of  $35^{\circ}$ , belongs to the table-land of Azerd-bijan. Its surface stretches out in a plain consisting of gradual ascents and descents, and furrowed by deep valleys. A lofty range of mountains divides the N frontiers of I. from the provs. bordering on the Caspian. This range passes about 6 m. to the N of Tehran; and about 50 m. to the SE of that city, suddenly turns S to about the parallel of  $36^{\circ}$ , whence it turns NE, and enters Taheristan. At the point of deflection is the pass of Khawar, through which the road leads from Cashan to Demavend and to Tehran, and from this pass a vast but undulating valley extends to the NW as far as Caswin, in  $36^{\circ} 12' N$  lat. The climate of this part of I. is delightful in spring. The summer-heat sets in towards the middle of June. Cold begins to be felt towards the end of September, and much snow falls in December, January, and February. The Kezil-Ozein, or Kizil-Uzein, forms the natural boundary on the NW, between I. and Azerd-bijan. A few m. to the E of Miana, it is joined by the Karauku, and the combined rivers force a passage through the Ak-Dagh or Caucasian range, and being joined by the Shahrud, assume the designation of the Sufdrud, and rush in a rapid course through Ghilan to the Caspian sea. The most mountainous part of I. lies between the Kezil-Ozein and the cities of Hamadan and Kermanshaw. This district is the El-Jebal, or 'mountain,' of Oriental writers, and the *Matienne* of the Greeks and Romans. During eight months of the year, the climate is here delightful, but in winter the cold is excessive. To the S of Hamadan lies Elvend, the *Mons Oromtes* of Diodorus. It is a lofty ridge, topped with continual snow, and extending from E to W about 12 m. A fertile tract of country lies to the SW, be-

tween Hamadan and Kungawar. The range of the Elburz mountains, with its well-watered and fertile valleys, and its high summits, is included in I., as well as the hilly country which skirts its S base, and which is generally well cultivated. The road from Teheran to Casvin or Casbin leads through this rich valley at the foot of these lower hills. The large expanse of country between Kermanshaw S to Ispahan, is chiefly occupied by wandering tribes, although it embraces some of the most fertile parts of I. That part of the desert which is included in I. has a sandy soil, and is nearly enclosed by mountains. But though sparingly watered, it produces silk and fruit.—The whole prov. is divided into 5 large districts, viz. Isfahan or Ispahan, Tihiran or Tehran, Nayon, Melayar, and Kermanshahan; which are again subdivided into *bukhs*, or large feudal estates.

**IRAK-ARABI.** See BAGDAD.

**IRANCTA**, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Navarra, partido and 15 m. WNW of Pamplona, on the l. bank of the Araquil. Pop. 420. In the vicinity is a vitriolic spring.

**IRANCY**, a commune and town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne, cant. and 5 m. ENE of Coulangela-Vineuse, and 8 m. SSE of Auxerre. It affords excellent wine.

**IRANGA**, or **IRANGT**, a lake or lagoon on the E coast of Madagascar, in S lat.  $18^{\circ} 14'$ , in the Betsim-saraka district. It lies immediately S of Atopiana lake, and is one of the most extensive in the series which line the coast S of Tamatave. It is infested with crocodiles. On its banks are the villages of Atakalampona and Ambaribe.

**IRAPIRANG.** See VAZABARRIS.

**IRAPUAN**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Pedro-do-Rio-Grande, and district of Caçapaba. It runs S, and joins the Jacuhi, on the r. bank, near the mouth of the outlet of lake Pathos, and after a course of about 27 m.

**IRASBURG**, a township of Orleans co., in the state of Vermont, U.S., 45 m. NE of Montpelier. It has an undulating surface, and is watered by Black and Barton rivers. Its soil is generally fertile. Pop. in 1840, 981.

**IRASU**, a volcanic mountain of central America, in the state of Costarica, in N lat.  $9^{\circ} 35'$ , W long.  $83^{\circ} 52'$ , to the NE of the town of Carthage.

**IRATI**, a river of Spain, in the prov. of Navarre, which has its source near the frontier of France, in a forest of the same name; runs first W, then S, passing in its course Orbaicete, Ariebe, Aviz, and Lumbier; at the latter town it receives the Salazar, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. above Sanguexa joins the Aragon. It has a total course of about 39 m., and abounds with fish.

**IRAWADI, IRRAWADDY, or AIRAVATI**, [*i. e.*, according to some, 'the great river,' or, according to other authorities, 'the Elephantine river,'] the principal river in India, beyond the Brahmaputra. It has its sources near the E extremity of the Himalaya in Tibet, about  $28^{\circ} N$  lat. and  $97^{\circ} 30' E$  long., not far from the sources of the Bor-Lohit, the E branch of the Brahmaputra. Klaproth contends that the Sangu or Dzang-bo of Tibet, is the head-stream of the I.; but Lieutenant Burlton having penetrated across the Lang-tan chain in 1827, to the residence of the Borkhamti rajah, 12 m. distant from the I., found it about 80 yds. broad at Manchi, in the lat. of  $27^{\circ} 30'$ , and formed a little above that point by the union of two head-streams, which were fed by numerous small rills, rising in lofty snow-clad mountains 50 m. to the N. The plain through which it flows at Manchi is only 1,855 ft. above sea-level. It flows generally S, through the Singfo territory, and the centre of the Birman empire, which it traverses in its entire length of 600 m., till it falls by 14 mouths into the

bay of Bengal, between Cape Negrais and the gulf of Martaban, in about 16° N lat. Its entire course may be estimated at about 1,200 m. It receives, on its r. bank, at Yandabu, N lat. 21° 43', E long. 95°, its principal tributary, the Khyen-dwen, which rises a little to the S of Rungpur, and flows in a nearly S course. The delta of the I. commences in about 17° 45' N lat. This is a vast alluvial plain, of which the S or base line is 135 m. in length; the E side 113 m.; the W 114 m. [*Hamilton*], thickly intersected by arms of the river, frequently inosculating with each other. Of these mouths, the Rangoon on the E, and the Bassein or Syriam on the W, are the principal, and are navigable for small vessels drawing 5 ft. The harbour of Negrais, formed by the mouth of the river of that name, is said to be the most secure in the bay of Bengal. The Bassein branch, which may be considered the proper continuation of the main stream of the I., branches off from the main river to the S of Myam-aong, and is about 700 yds. in width at the point where the Rangoon separates from it. From the apex of the delta to Yedan above Ava, the breadth of the I. is seldom less than 1 m., and often 4 m. It may be ascended as far as Ava at all seasons by vessels of 200 tons, and in the rain they may proceed to the Mogoung river, a sailing distance of about 800 m. from the sea. Above Yedan, the I. suddenly contracts to 150 or 200 yds. in breadth. It is navigable for canoes up to B'hanmo, 350 m. below Khamti, where it has an alt. of about 500 ft. above sea-level. The current is not in general very rapid, even above the Mogoung. The I. in the dry season flows only at the rate of about 2 m. an hour; and during the dry months of January, February, March, and April, its waters in many places subside into a slow and sluggish stream that is barely navigable. [*Syme*.] But in the inundations, from June to September, it flows so rapidly that its current would be too powerful for boats to stem were it not for the aid of the SW monsoon, which sets in the opposite direction. Assisted by this wind, and constantly keeping within the eddies of the banks, the Birman boats use their sails, and frequently make a more expeditious passage at this than at any other season. During its inundation, the river has a breadth of about 1 m.; above B'hanmo and in some places below Ava, of from 4 to 6 m., and cutting up the country into innumerable islands. At the former place its rise is as much as 50 ft.; at Promé about 30 ft.; and in its delta 10 ft. The latter region becomes at that period almost an uninterrupted expanse of water, it being at ordinary times little above the level of high tides, and skirted by a perfectly flat shore. The river owes its rise not so much to rain as to the rapid melting of the snow on the lofty ranges whence its feeders descend. In the upper part of its course, on its l. or E bank, the I. receives some large affluents; as the Pintang or B'hanmo, the Lung-tchuen, and the Myet-ngé, from the Chinese prov. of Yunnan, which joins it at Ava. Its chief affluents on the opposite side are the Mogoung and the Khyen-dwen or Ningthi, which join it about the middle of its course. The last, as already stated, is its principal tributary. After its junction, the I. receives no stream of any importance. Sakaing or Sugaing, fronting Ava, and formerly the metropolis, Ava, Amarapura, B'hanmo the great mart for the Chinese trade with Birmah, Yandabu, Pagan or Pagham-Mew, Meliun, and Promé, are situated upon the main stream; and Rangoon and Bassein on the deltoid branches bearing their names. Besides these cities, numerous towns and large villages are built on or near the banks of the river.

The course of this river, in the Burmese territories, is marked in the distance by two chains of hills, one of

which, running along the W coast in a longitudinal direction, separates it from the prov. of Aracan; the other, on the E side, of minor elevation though of greater extent, forms the commencement of a wild mountainous district, which stretches, with little interruption, to the confines of the Chinese empire. The width of the intervening valley, through which the I. flows, is from 60 to 80 m., and within that space the pop. is principally concentrated. Along the upper part of its course, both banks of the river are well diversified by a succession of gentle undulations, and hills of moderate size, branching off from the loftier chains on either side; the country is generally open, the soil light, gravelly, in many places well-cultivated, and in others under rich natural grass; but about 150 m. from the sea, the hills begin to disappear, the country becomes a dead level, and the river, no longer restrained in its course, finds its way to the ocean through numerous creeks and channels, with which all the lower division of the empire, comprising the kingdom of Pegu, is intersected. The delta of the I., which includes above 10,000 sq. m., presents a very different aspect to the upper part of its course. On entering the low grounds from the interior, a thick belt of teak forests is found to extend from 30 to 40 m. in breadth, the produce of which forms one of the principal articles of export from the empire; these trees frequently rise to the height of 60 or 70 ft. without a branch, and then throw out a dense foliage which almost excludes the sun's rays. Here the surface is tolerably clear of underwood, but beyond the forests it is found to be covered, all the way to the sea, with low wood, thickets of jungle, or a gigantic species of Guinea grass, which in some places attains the height of from 20 to 25 ft. There is but little cultivation; a few rice-fields only are to be met with on the banks of the Laine, one of the principal branches of the Rangoon channel of the I., the rest is all in a state of nature. The rankness of the grass, too, is unfavourable to any domestic cattle except buffaloes; oxen are seldom met with below the line of forest, and as generally happens in moist-wooded countries, sheep do not thrive. Even the smaller kinds of game are very scarce; a coarse species of elk, herds of wild elephants, and the beasts of prey common in the tropical regions of Asia, are the principal occupants of this extensive wilderness. Throughout the whole of the lower district there is scarcely anything deserving the name of a road; the facilities for water conveyance are such that the natives neglect every other mode of communication, and the only means of intercourse by land with the interior are mere footpaths, which, during the monsoon, are quite impassable. The soil, like that of the deltas of most great rivers, is principally composed of alluvial deposit, and the remains of decayed vegetation. Along the course of the Laine, however, as well as in the vicinity of Rangoon, stiff clay is often met with, particularly in the open flats, and this is sometimes covered to a considerable depth with rich loam. There are no continuous masses of primitive rocks, but large boulders of granite are found scattered over the plains. The water at Rangoon, and for a considerable distance inland, is strongly impregnated with iron. [*Official report*.]

The I. is to the Birman empire what the Nile is to Egypt, or the Ganges to Bengal—the source of abundance and the great commercial highway of the country. “The number of trading boats on the river is astonishing. The largest of them carry 10,000 or 12,000 bush. of uncleaned rice; the smaller 300 or 400. Their chief lading seemed to be rice, salt, and *gnapee*. In ascending they are for the most part drawn by the crew, with a rope, upon the bank, or propelled

by setting-poles; sailing only when the wind is fair, and neither too strong nor too weak. They are generally from 3 to 4 months in ascending from the delta to Ava. The boats on the river, though of all sizes up to 200 tons, are but of two general descriptions. All retain the canoe-shape, sharp at each end. Large boats have one mast, and a yard of long slender bamboo, to which is suspended a square sail. The sail is made in sections, the centre ones only being used in strong winds, and the others added at the sides when necessary. Sometimes a small sail is temporarily fastened above the yard to the ropes, by which it is sustained. The deck extends from 5 to 10 ft. beyond the sides, with large bamboos fastened beneath, making at once a platform for the men, when using their setting-poles, &c., and an outrigger to prevent their upsetting. The vessel itself is wholly covered with a regular Birman house, well thatched, which carries part of the cargo, and furnishes cabins to the family and boatmen. On the roof is a platform, on which the men stand to work the sail. They are manned by from 15 to 25 or 30 men, and sometimes 40 or more." [Malcom.] The smaller sized vessels are of an elongated canoe shape, hollowed out sometimes from a single log, and deepened by a plank fastened on each side; with the stern and stem left solid for 3 or 4 ft., and curving upwards out of the water. The distance from Rangoon to Ava is 500 m., according to Symes. In the dry season a war-boat will go from Rangoon to Ava in 8 days, and in the rainy season, in 10 days; but during the freshes, will accomplish the descent in 4 days.

IRAY, a village of France, in the dep. of the Orne, cant. and 8 m. SSE of Laigle. Pop. 770. It has a mineral spring.

IRBERSDORF. See EHRENFRIEDERSDORF.

IRBIT, a district, river, and town of Russia in Asia, in the gov. of Perm. The district lies in the E part of the gov., comprising a portion of the Ural mountains, and containing several mines of copper and iron. Pop. 94,820. It is watered by a river of the same name, which is formed by the junction of the Tatarskaia, Bobrovka, and Liaga, near the village of Klatcheva; runs N; and throws itself into the Nieva, on the r. bank, at the town of the same name, and after a course of about 39 m. The town is 276 m. E of Perm, and 111 m. ENE of Yekaterinburg, on the r. bank of the Nieva, at the confluence of the river of the same name. Pop. 1,000. It is enclosed with palisades, and contains 2 churches and a large market-place surrounded with shops. It is chiefly noted for a fair which is held annually, and was formerly attended by merchants from distant parts of Europe and Asia, but has been gradually forsaken for the more considerable fairs of Nijni-Novgorod and Yekaterinburg.

IRBY, a township in the p. of Woodchurch, Cheshire, 5 m. NNW of Great Neston. Area 574 acres. Pop. in 1831, 123; in 1851, 180.

IRBY-UPON-HUMBER, a parish in Lincolnshire, 5½ m. WSW of Great Grimsby. Area 1,811 acres. Pop. in 1831, 263; in 1861, 253.

IRBY-IN-THE-MARSH, a parish in Lincolnshire, 4½ m. ESE of Spilsby. Area 1,090 acres. Pop. in 1831, 96; in 1851, 203.

IRCHESTER, a parish in Northamptonshire, 3 m. SE of Wellingtonborough, and ESE of the Nen. Area 1,980 acres. Pop. in 1851, 960.

IRCHONWILZ, a department and town of Belgium, in the prov. of Hainault, and arrond. of Mons. Pop. 861.

IRCIO, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, in the prov. and 36 m. NE of Burgos, partido and 3 m. ESE of Miranda-de-Ebro, on the r. bank of the Ebro. Pop. 120.

IRDNING, a town of Styria, in the circle and 86 m. NW of Judenburg, on the r. bank of the Ens. Pop. 380. It has manufactories of saltpetre.

IREBY, a township in the p. of Tatham, Lancashire, 4 m. SE of Kirkby-Lonsdale. Area 1,810 acres. Pop. in 1831, 109; in 1851, 111.—Also a parish and market-town in Cumberland, 8 m. S by W of Wigton, and 304 m. NNW of London. It comprises the townships of High-Ireby, N. of the Derwent, pop. 174; and of Lower-Ireby, near the source of the Ellen, pop. 331. Area 3,532 acres. Pop. in 1831, 499; in 1851, 405.

IREDELL, a county in the state of North Carolina, U. S., comprising an area of 800 sq. m., bordered on the SW by the Catawba river, and drained by branches of South Yadkin river. Pop. in 1840, 15,685, of whom 3,716 were slaves; in 1850, 14,740. Its capital is Statesville.

IREGH, a town of civil Slavonia, in the comitat of Symria, 17 m. NE of Mitrowitz, and 11 m. S of Peterwardein, at the foot of the mountain of Karlowitz. Pop. 5,000. It contains a castle. The vine is extensively cultivated in the environs.—Also a town of Hungary, in the comitat of Tolna, 33 m. SSE of Wesprim and 75 m. SSW of Pesth. Pop. 2,525. It contains a castle and 2 churches, a Catholic and a Calvinist. In 1796 it was extensively devastated by the plague.

## IRELAND,

The second in extent of the British islands, stretching between 51° 26' and 55° 21' N lat., and 5° 20' and 10° 26' W long. Its relative position is W of Great Britain, from the S of Argyshire and the centre of Ayrshire in Scotland, to the N of Somersetshire in England, or the S of Glamorganshire in Wales. It is bounded, on the NE, by the North channel; on the E by the Irish sea; on the SE by St. George's channel; and on the S, the W, and the N, by the Atlantic ocean. The Blasquet islands in co. Kerry, are in the lat. of Charleton's isle in Hudson's bay; and Bolus-head in the lat. of the straits of Belleisle in North America. Malin-head and Culdaff-bay on the N coast of co. Donegal, are in the lat. of respectively Campbelltown and the Mull of Kintyre in Scotland; Glenarm is in the lat. of Newcastle-upon-Tyne; Killyleagh on Lough Strangford, is in the lat. of Dantzic; Clogher-head, nearly in the lat. of Hull; Malahide lies opposite Liverpool; Dublin lies nearly opposite Holyhead; Enniscorthy is in the lat. of Birmingham; the town of Wexford, in the lat. of Hanover; the entrance of Youghal harbour, in the lat. of Rotterdam; the town of Bandon, in the lat. of Oxford; Baltimore is opposite Bristol; and Cape Clear, or the S extremity of Cape Clear island, in the lat. of Leipzig. The shortest distances between Ireland and Great Britain are 13½ m. from Tor-point in co. Antrim to the Mull of Kintyre; 21 m. from Donaghadee in co. Down to Portpatrick in Galloway; and about 47 m. from Carnsore-point in co. Wexford to St. David's head in Wales. But the most facile lines of communication between Irish and British ports, or those distances which are either run by regularly-plying steam-vessels or constitute the shortest and easiest for sailing-vessels, are 138 m. from Londonderry to Greenock; 35½ m. from Larne to Cairn; 107 m. from Belfast to Greenock; 156 m. from Belfast to Liverpool; 21 m. from Donaghadee to Portpatrick; 143 m. from Dundalk to Liverpool; 130 m. from Dublin to Liverpool; 63 m. from Dublin to Holyhead; 104 m. from Kingstown to Fishguard; 69 m. from Wexford to Fishguard; 222 m. from Waterford to Bristol; and 268 m. from Cork to Bristol.



*Extent.]* The outline of continental I. is proximately that of a rhomboid; and, in a general view, is greatly more continuous or less indented and undulated by cuts and sweeps of the sea than the outline of continental Great Britain. The larger diagonal of the rhomboid extends from Tor-head in co. Antrim to Mizen-head in co. Cork, and measures 302 m.; and the shorter extends from Carnsore-point in co. Wexford to Erris-head in co. Mayo, and measures 210 m. The longest meridional line extends nearly from Bloody-Foreland in co. Donegal to the Old-head of Kinsale in co. Cork, and measures 237 m.; and the longest latitudinal line extends from Quintin-point at the mouth of Lough Strangford in co. Down, to Emlogh-Rash on the W coast of co. Mayo, and measures about 182 m. But the breadth of the country from Dundalk to Ballyshannon is only 85 m.; that from Belfast to Donegal, only 90 m.; and that from Dublin to the head of Galway bay, not more than 108 m. No part of I. is farther than 50 or 55 m. from either the open sea or some marine inlet; and very few fertile or densely peopled portions of it are many miles distant from some seaward navigation.—The area of the entire kingdom comprehends 13,464,300 acres of arable land, 6,295,735 of uncultivated land, 374,482 of plantations, 42,929 of towns, and 630,825 of fresh water,—in all 20,808,271 acres.

*General surface.]* Compared to Scotland and Wales, I. is a rather flat country; compared to England, it is decidedly hilly and mountainous. A considerable proportion of its surface resembles in character the Scottish and the Welsh highlands; a large proportion is similar in conformation to the English plains; and a still larger proportion possesses various features and appearances either peculiar to itself or more or less unlike those of any noticeably large district of Great Britain. Notwithstanding an enormous aggregate of brown bog on both plain and mountain, and in spite also of a large amount of naked rock, and shallow moorish soil, the prevailing aspect is one of verdure and fertility, such as instantly suggests and indicates to a stranger the fondly encomiastic epithets of 'green' and 'emerald' Isle. The naturally arable land bears an exceedingly larger proportion to the entire than that of Scotland and Wales; and the pasture-land figures more prominently than that of England, and aggregately possesses a far richer greenness and a more luxuriant vegetation. As to general configuration of surface, I. possesses the singular character of a vast central plain, surrounded by a seaboard of mountains. Theoretic topography—or that which loves to fuse detached hills into ranges, to combine dispersed heights into systems, and to trace imaginary concatenations of mountain across valley and sea—is familiar with the idea of a great central upland falling off on all sides to the ocean, and with that of a grand interior tableau abutting downward upon encompassing plains, and with that of a prolonged 'back-bone' of country whose ribs decline laterally to opposite shores, and with that of a curved or fitful summit-line of mountain, overlooking on one side a precipitous descent, and on another a long shelving declination to the sea; but it may study upon the face of I. the unique phenomenon of mountain masses forming a stupendous bulwark round the greater part of the circuit of the coast, and enclosing an enormous expanse of plain, comparatively low and undiversified, and aggregately far below the level of even the spurs or lower declivities of the environing mountains. One may journey 133 m. from Dublin to Galway, or from side to side of the kingdom, across a surface so low as to attain a summit-altitude of less than 300 ft. above sea-level; and so flat and uniform as no-

where to possess a hill of more than 200 ft. of altitude above the surrounding or prevailing elevation.

*Mountains and plains.]* The mountains of Donegal, Londonderry, and Antrim, occupy nearly all the N seaboard; the mountains of Antrim, Louth, and Dublin, and the alpine masses of Down and Wicklow, about two-thirds of all the E; the mountains of Waterford and Cork, the greater part of the S; and the alternate alpine uplands and lofty hills of Kerry, Clare, Galway, Mayo, Sligo, and Donegal, very nearly the whole of the W. These mountain-tracts rarely extend more than 20 m. inland; and, excepting some unimportant extensions of the northern Cork congeries into Limerick and Tipperary, the Blackstairs or Mount-Leinster range between Wexford and Carlow, and the Slievebloom range between King's co. and Queen's co., they are the only heights of considerable greatness in I.—The SW and the W congeries, in consequence of their exposure to the prevailing winds of the country and the fierce assaults of the Atlantic, are to a large extent cut into a deep and rugged alternation of steep promontory and far-invading bay; and in most of these alternations they present the interesting phenomenon, that the bed or bottom of the bays consists of secondary or carboniferous limestone, while the promontories are composed of either primitive or transition rocks, particularly of granite, mica slate, quartz rock, greywacke, and old red sandstone conglomerate. All the mountains nearest the coast, most of those on the interior or landward side of the seaboard, and even some of the few which occur toward the central districts of the kingdom, are in a great measure destitute of naturally systematic arrangement, consisting not so much of ranges or groups as of utterly irregular amassments, and occasionally of isolated heights. The principal series which present an elongated and continuous character of the form of a ridge in any part of the country are the Carlingford mountains in Louth; the Mount-Leinster or Blackstairs mountains between Wexford and Carlow; the Cummerragh mountains across Waterford; the Knockmeleadow mountains between Waterford and Tipperary; the Galtee mountains in Tipperary, Cork, and Limerick; the Nagles mountains in Cork; and the Slievebloom mountains between Queen's co. and King's co.—The low or campaign country of I. can to a very small extent be regarded as a series of valleys like the low surface of England, and still less as an alternation of vales with hills as in the low grounds of Scotland; but, on the contrary, is for the most part either such an expanse of apparently dead level, or of fitful undulations and winding hollows, that the most practised eye is rarely able to conjecture the direction of any one prevailing declination. A large proportion of the low country of Ulster, particularly in Down and Armagh, is a continuous mazy series of low fertile hills, cut into individual isolation by sinuous dells and dingles. A considerable proportion of the entire low grounds of the kingdom, particularly the corcasses of Clare and Limerick, 'the golden vale' in Limerick and Tipperary, and the great grazing district of Dublin and Meath, present the appearance of luxuriant steppe or prairie, cut into small sections and sprinkled with human dwellings; another considerable or even large proportion, as the great district called the bog of Allen, is a dismal level of brown bog, occasionally broken and relieved by edgings of wood and intervening tracts of flat arable land; another considerable proportion, as most of co. Longford and of the great plain of Connaught, combines the characters of the grazing flats and the level bogs; a smaller proportion, as the remainder of the plain of Connaught and a part of the N of Clare, is a verdant plain en-

cumbered with enormous blocks of naked rock; another smaller proportion, or most of co. Cavan, presents a prevalingly low surface, broken with the cropping out of rock; and multitudes of tiny districts dispersed throughout the greater part of the otherwise level country, are sheets of horizontal strata lying upon horizontal carboniferous limestone, and tumulated with hillocky accumulations of limestone diluvium. "The peculiar flatness of the interior of Ireland," observes Mr. Griffith, "has been the probable cause of those vast accumulations of alluvial matter, composed of clay and limestone gravel, which, in the form of low but steep ridges of hill, occur so abundantly throughout the middle districts, and which are generally known by the name of *eskers*. These ridges of limestone gravel probably originated at a period when the country was either wholly or partially submerged, from eddies formed by undulations in the surface. That the surface of the country was exposed to the action of rapid currents of water, is evidenced by the deep parallel scratches, sometimes amounting to furrows, which may be frequently observed on the surface of solid rocks, when the diluvial soil has been removed. It is probable, also, that the gravel hills were rapidly deposited from water in violent action, from their frequently consisting of an intermixture of large masses of rock partially rounded, with small gravel, and even with clay and sand. The origin of those immense tracts of bog which are everywhere spread over the interior of the flat country, may also be attributed to the stagnant water pent up, as we now find it, above the level of the dry country, by gravel hills which form a continuous ridge, though not of equal height, round the bog edge."—Taking the superficial area of I. at 32,509 sq. m., there are about 13,242 sq. m. whose surface ranges from sea-level to 250 ft. in height; 11,797 sq. m. between 250 and 500 ft. in height; 5,797 sq. m. from 500 to 1,000 ft.; 1,589 sq. m. from 1,000 to 2,000 ft.; and 82 sq. m. above 2,000 ft.

*Rivers.*] The river Foyle is formed by the Finn and the Mourne, both voluminous streams, at the bridge of Lifford; drains large sections of the cos. of Donegal, Tyrone, and Londonderry; and, over the lower part of its course, is identified with the shallow but wide marine expansion of Lough Foyle. It is tidal from Magilligan-point to Castle-Finn, a distance of 35 m., and navigable for sea-borne vessels 20 m.—The Bann drains large portions of the cos. of Down, Armagh, Tyrone, Londonderry, and Antrim; traverses Lough Neagh, and falls into the sea 5 m. WSW of the boundary between Antrim and Londonderry. It is tidal and navigable a distance of 4 m.—The Bush, on the N coast of co. Antrim, runs only 10 m., and is occasionally very shallow. The Glenariff and the Glenarm rivulets, on the E coast of Antrim, are only tidal over a very brief distance; and all the other rivulets of the N and E of Antrim have a brief run, and are unnavigable.—The Lagan drains a large part of co. Down, and a considerable part of co. Antrim, and falls into the head of Belfast-lough. It is naturally navigable to the vicinity of Lisburn, and is connected by an artificial navigation with Lough Neagh. The Newry flows into the head of Lough Carlingford, and is navigable to Newry, and connected, by artificial navigation, with the Upper Bann and Lough Neagh.—The Boyne drains small portions of King's co., and cos. Westmeath, Cavan, and Louth, and the greater part of co. Meath; it is navigable by sea-borne vessels to Drogheda, and by river-craft to Navan.—The Liffey, a stream of brilliant beauty, bisecting the metropolis, rises among the N Wicklow mountains, describes a circuitous course, and drains large districts of cos. Wicklow, Kildare, and Dublin, and a small portion

of co. Meath; it is navigable for sea-borne vessels to Carlisle-bridge in Dublin, and for boats over a distance of 3½ m.—The Bray drains a small part of co. Wicklow and of co. Dublin, and is occasionally navigable to the town of Bray.—The Vartry drains the larger part of the NE section of co. Wicklow, but is remarkable chiefly for the wild grandeur of a portion of its scenery.—The Ovoca, celebrated for the beauty of its richly wooded mountain-vale, drains the central and SE districts of co. Wicklow, and forms at its embouchure an indifferent harbour for the town of Arklow.—The Slaney, draining considerable portions of cos. Wicklow and Carlow, and about one-half of co. Wexford, is navigable by sea-borne vessels to the town of Wexford, and by small vessels to Enniscorthy.—The Barrow, and its main tributary the Nore, drain a pendicle of co. Tipperary, a large part of King's co., nearly the whole of Queen's co., large districts of cos. Kildare and Carlow, the larger part of co. Kilkenny, and a considerable part of co. Wexford; their united stream is navigable by sea-borne vessels of large burden to New Ross; the Barrow itself is tidal and naturally navigable to St. Malins, and navigable, with artificial aid, to Athy, whence it is connected by canal with Dublin.—The Suir drains nearly the whole of co. Tipperary, a large part of co. Waterford, and a considerable part of co. Kilkenny; it is navigable for sea-borne vessels to Waterford, and for river-craft to Clonmel.—The Blackwater, one of the largest and most beautiful rivers of Ireland, drains small parts of cos. Limerick and Kerry, a large proportion of co. Cork, and a considerable proportion of co. Waterford; it is navigable for barges 12 m., and for lighters 20 m., or to Lismore canal.—The Lee drains a large part of co. Cork; is navigable for large sea-borne vessels to Cork, 12 m. from the mouth of Cork harbour, and for boats 2 m. above Cork. The Bandon washes the towns of Dunmanway, Enniskeen, Bandon, Innishannon, and Kinsale; and forms the estuarial harbour of Kinsale.—The Ilan washes Skibbereen, and forms the estuarial harbour of Baltimore; and is navigable for boats and tidal 1 m. above Skibbereen, and navigable for vessels of burden to within 3 m. of the town.—The Cashen is formed by the Feale, the Gale, and the Brick; drains small parts of cos. Limerick and Cork, and a large proportion of the N of co. Kerry; it is tidal, and navigable for vessels of 10 tons, over a distance of 6 m.—The Shannon drains a small part of co. Cavan, a large part of co. Leitrim, nearly the whole of co. Roscommon, nearly the whole of co. Longford, a pendicle of co. Meath, a large part of co. Westmeath, the larger part of King's co., a considerable part of co. Galway, a large part of co. Tipperary, the greater part of co. Clare, nearly the whole of co. Limerick, and a considerable part of co. Kerry; it is tidal, deeply navigable, and in a certain sense estuarial, all the way to the city of Limerick. It sends off the estuary of the Fergus from its N side, and has a series of small harbours on both the N side and the S. It is navigable for river-craft, partly up its own channel and partly by canal, from Limerick to Killaloe; is navigated by steam-vessels from Killaloe to Athlone, and by river-craft from Athlone to Lough Allen; and it commands all the ramifications of inland navigation in the centre, E, and W, of Ireland.—The Gurtamartin and the Carnamart, which flow into the head or E end of Galway bay, are of large size among rivulets; and the former is curious for the number of its subterraneous dives and runs.—The Galway or Corrib, which enters Galway bay at the town of Galway, carries off the superfluous waters of Loughs Carra, Mask, and Corrib, and drains a pendicle of co. Roscommon, and large districts of cos. Mayo and Gal-

way; it is proposed to be connected by artificial navigation with Lough Corrib, and to open Galway bay to an extensive and ramified navigation through Connaught to Clew bay, Killalla bay, and the Shannon.—The Sligo river forms the estuarial harbour of Sligo, and carries off the superfluent waters of Lough Gill.—The Erne drains a small part of co. Longford, a large part of co. Leitrim, a considerable part of co. Monaghan, very nearly the whole of co. Fermanagh, a small part of co. Tyrone, and a considerable part of co. Donegal; it expands into the large and exquisitely beautiful sheets of Lough Oughter, Upper Lough Erne and Lower Lough Erne. It connects through the Ulster canal with all the NE navigations of Ireland, and is naturally navigable between Beltrubet and Belleek, but is hindered by a cascade at Ballyshannon from being navigable to the sea.—The Lackagh, which flows into the head of Sheephaven, is navigable for vessels drawing 10 ft. water to a point 500 yds. above Lackagh bridge. Its chief tributaries are the Owencarry and the Clune.—The Lennon or Lennan falls into the W side of Lough Swilly, and is tidal and navigable to Rathmelton.—The Swilly falls into the head of Lough Swilly, and forms the small tidal harbour of Letterkenny.

*Lakes.]* Lough Neagh, on the boundaries of cos. Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, and Londonderry, is not only the largest lake in the United Kingdom, but one of the largest in Europe. It is a characterless inland sea, surrounded by low shores and a generally flat country.—Loughs Erne, Upper and Lower, partly in cos. Cavan and Donegal, but chiefly in co. Fermanagh, are multitudinously studded with beautiful islands, and possessed of more extent, power, and character than the Winandermere of England; and they serve, not only as a great navigable series of waters in themselves, but as the counterpart of Lough Neagh in the system of navigations for Ulster and by the Ulster canal.—Lough Corrib, partly on the boundary between Mayo and Galway, but chiefly within the latter co., is a large lacustrine expanse, very variable in width, depth, and scenery, but, to a large extent, gemmed with green islands, and either bounded by luxuriant grounds or overhung by wild and lofty mountains; and it forms a main part of the chain of natural inland navigation in what have been termed 'the Lakes of Connaught.'—Lough Mask, situated in cos. Galway and Mayo, a little N of Lough Corrib, displays much beauty, and pours its great volume of superfluent waters down a subterranean channel to Lough Corrib. It is also an important part of the navigable series of Connaught lakes.—Lough Carra, situated within Mayo very near the head of Lough Mask, is much inferior in size to the latter, but considerably similar in character.—Lough Conn, in the N of co. Mayo, has a few islets, and is partly overhung by Mount Nephin, partly bounded by pleasant shores, and partly screened with heathy moors. The lakes of Killarney, Upper, Middle, and Lower, in co. Kerry, the first and second small, and the third large, are known throughout Europe for their exquisitely rich and powerful scenery.—Lough Allen, situated partly on the boundary between Roscommon, but chiefly within the latter co., is traversed by the young Shannon, and forms the commencement of the Shannon navigation.—Lough Ree, situated between co. Roscommon on the W, and cos. Longford and Westmeath on the E, is a large and long expansion of the Shannon.—Lough Derg, situated between co. Tipperary on the E, and cos. Galway and Clare on the W, is the largest and longest expansion of the Shannon.—Lough Melvin, on the mutual borders of cos. Leitrim and Fermanagh, is partly overhung by the Darry mountains, and partly bounded by low, rocky, moorish

grounds.—Loughs Macnean, Upper and Lower, on the mutual borders of cos. Leitrim, Cavan, and Fermanagh, are wild sheets of water, cradled amidst a region of brilliant highland scenery.—Lough Oughter, in co. Cavan, and in the channel or river-course of the Upper Erne, is a singularly intricate and almost labyrinthine intermixture of water with bold headlands, deep, projecting, wooded peninsula, and large fertile islands.—Lough Key, in the N of co. Roscommon, and in the river-course of the Boyle, is a luscious sheet of water, gemmed with beautiful islands.—Lough Gara, on the mutual borders of cos. Roscommon, Mayo, and Sligo, has a singularly beautiful outline.—Lough Arrow, partly on the boundary between Roscommon and Sligo, but chiefly within the latter co., is studded with some beautiful islands.—Lough Gill, partly on the mutual border of Leitrim and Sligo, but chiefly within the latter co., has been pronounced inferior in scenery only to the lakes of Killarney.—Lough Derriveragh, in co. Westmeath, is a beautiful and comparatively large sheet of water.—Lough Owel, a little S of Lough Derriveragh, is a limpid lake, fed by internal springs, and affording to the Royal canal its main supply of water.—Lough Iron, in co. Westmeath, and a little NW of Lough Owel, has in general flat and boggy shores.—Lough Ennel, in co. Westmeath, and S of Lough Owel, is very beautiful.—Lough Sheelin, on the mutual border of cos. Meath, Westmeath, and Cavan, but chiefly within the last, is a beautiful though only third-rate expanse of water.—Loch Ganny, Gaunagh, or Gouna, on the mutual border of cos. Longford and Cavan, forms the young Erne by its superfluent waters, and has been pronounced the most beautiful of the Leinster lakes.—Lough Ramor, on the SE of co. Cavan, is beautified with several wooded islets, and has considerably varied shores.—The Coote-hill lakes, on the border of cos. Cavan and Monaghan, are replete with beauty.—Lough Derg, in the SE corner of co. Donegal, is a gloomy mountain lake, remarkable for St. Patrick's Purgatory on one of its dismal islets.—Lough Esk, in the S of Donegal, is a pleasant and ornate sheet of water.—Lough Veagh, a little N of the centre of co. Donegal, is a magnificent though not large mountain lake.—Lough Carrowmore, in the NE of co. Mayo, is a dreary expanse of water, amidst a vast region of wild moorlands.—Loughs Bray, in the N of co. Wicklow, are mere loughlets, remarkable for the great elevation at which they lie, and the sublime scenery in which they are cradled.—The lakes of Glendalough, near the centre of co. Wicklow, are noticeable, not strictly on their own account, but in association with the many and singular architectural ruins of their small and savagely wild glen.—The lakes of Inchegeelagh or Allua, in the W of co. Cork, have an agreeable mountain character.—Lough Gougane-Barra, on the W margin of co. Cork, a few miles W of the lakes of Inchegeelagh, is a loughlet of thrilling mountain romance.—The lakes of Carra, Upper and Lower, in the W of co. Kerry, lie in a wild and beautiful glen, and have for a number of years past commanded the attention of visitors to the lakes of Killarney.—Lough Currane, on the coast of Ballinaskelligs bay in co. Kerry, has a mingled character of moorishness and mountain scenery.

*Bogs.]* I. is proverbial for the number and extent of its bogs. By 4 separate reports of commissioners, it appears that there are in I. 1,676,000 acres of flat bogs, and 1,254,000 acres of bogs that form the covering of mountains, being a total of 2,930,000 acres of bogs capable of improvement; yet, except within the limits of a district 52 m. in mean breadth, extending from the Irish sea to the Atlantic, the country is scarcely more encumbered with bogs than Scotland or England, and even within the greater portion of the excepted district, it now presents extensive tracts comparatively free from bog. The bogs are exceedingly variable in depth, wetness, and consistency; but a large propor-



tion of them are completely saturated with water, and intermixed with quagmires. By far the larger proportion are champaign bogs, or expanses of morass either quite level or very slightly sloped, and generally situated in low plains or athwart the far-spread summits of low table-lands; and most of these are reddish in colour, spongy in consistency, and distinctively known as 'red bogs.' So many as about 90 flat bogs in co. Cavan are each of less extent than 500 acres, and yet aggregately comprise an area of at least 17,000 acres; and probably about 900 bogs of similar character and extent lie dispersed throughout the other cos. Mountain bogs lie at nearly all alts. above sea-level, from the skirts of the mere hills to the higher acclivities of the loftiest summits; and they consist for the most part of thin sheets or strata of peaty soil, dry, firm, easily reclaimed, and of very different appearance from the red bogs.

*Natural history.*] The materials for the natural history of I. are by no means rich or abundant. The romantic scenery of Killarney, in co. Kerry, is the most northern habitat of the *Arbutus uedo*. The heaths abound with the stately *Erica dabieci*; and the mountain aven, bear-berry, with other alpine plants, expand their neglected blossoms, and trail their glowing festoons of clustered berries, unnoticed amidst the wild solitude of their rocky fastnesses.—The zoology of I. is very similar to that of England. It is said that magpies and frogs were unknown here till introduced by the English toward the beginning of the 18th cent. Moles, toads, and snakes, are still unknown. The Irish greyhound or wolf-dog, formerly of great use in clearing the country of wolves, is now seldom met with. Its appearance is at once beautiful and majestic. Its height is about 3 ft.; its colour, generally a white or cinnamon; its disposition is gentle; its courage and strength are so great that the mastiff or bull-dog is far from being equal to it. The breed of the wolf was not extinguished in I. till the beginning of the 18th cent. Herds of deer were formerly numerous, but the progress of cultivation has rendered them rare. A species, at present entirely extinct, existed in ancient times, as enormous horns have been dug up in various parts of the kingdom, some measuring 14 ft. from tip to tip, furnished with brow antlers, and weighing 300 lbs.—The native horse is seldom more than 15 hands high; and the native hog is of a very poor breed. Lough Neagh contains a great variety of fish. Besides salmon, a large kind of trout, bream, and perch, it contains the pike, which is the same as the *ferra* of the lake of Geneva, and the *gwynia* of Bala lake in North Wales. Lough Erin, in co. Down, is remarkable for producing pike, trout, and eels, of an enormous size. The char is said to be found in the loughs in the mountainous part of Waterford. The oysters taken near Carlingford are celebrated for the peculiar richness and delicacy of their flavour.

*Geology and Mineralogy.*] I. is said to rest on a bed of granite; and this is highly probable, since granite is very conspicuous and abundant on its highest mountains. Of it the central mountains in co. Wicklow are formed, and likewise the ridge which separates the cos. of Wexford and Carlow. That portion of co. Kilkenny which lies between the Nore and the Barrow, abounds in granite of various shades, grey, red, and yellow. In some parts of co. Down, it is met with in detached masses; in other parts it appears to compose the hills; it also abounds in the neighbourhood of Dublin, and is found emerging from beneath the basalt mountain of Sleeve-Gallen in co. Derry. Clay-slate, felspar, and primitive greenstone, are of frequent occurrence. Limestone is met with in general in great abundance in all the cos. except Wexford, Wicklow, Tyrone, and Antrim. The quarries in the immediate vicinity of Dublin afford many varieties of calcareous productions. The calp of Mr. Kirwan is the prevailing rock. Brown spar is found in some quarries, and beds of magnesian limestone have been observed on the Dodder. Limestone of a fine white grain, lying

in strata from 4 inches to 2 ft. thick, and of which columns have been raised between 9 and 10 ft. long, and from 15 to 18 inches in diameter, abounds at Ardbraccan in Meath. This limestone receives a very high polish; and when long exposed to the air, assumes a greyish colour. Blue and white limestone is found in co. Derry. But perhaps the most useful limestone for building is that found in Kilkenny: of various colours, white, reddish, and black. Marble is also found in Cork, Armagh, Down, Kerry, &c. Limestone, containing iron and manganese, is found in various parts of Kilkenny. A species of whetstone is met with on the mountain of Mangerton. Altahoney, in co. Down, abounds in white calcareous spar. In the cave of Dunmore, in co. Kilkenny, alabaster occurs in large masses. The basaltic district of this country occupies a range of coast stretched out from the estuary of Carrickfergus on the one hand, to Lough Foyle on the other, and extends inland to the S shores of Lough Neagh. The basaltes of this district is generally amorphous, but is not unfrequently disposed in thick beds; at the Giant's Causeway it is most perfect in its form. The trap-field of Antrim extends over 800 sq. m. At the N edge of the island of Allan, which adjoins the bog of that name, stratified limestone makes its appearance at the surface. Vesuvian has been found at Kilranelagh, in a rock composed of common garnet, quartz, and felspar. Grenatite occurs in a micaceous compound in the lead mines in co. Wicklow. The precious beryl has been found imbedded in granite near Lough Bray; and cronebane in the same county and in the Dublin mountains near Dundrum. The Douce mountain, in co. Wicklow, is composed of micaceous slate, in which andalusite has been found. A variety of the same mineral has been found in great abundance at Kelliney, in co. Dublin. Pitch stone traversing granite has been found near Newry, in co. Down. The granular sulphate of barytes, accompanied by iron pyrites, has been found on the sea-shore near Clonakilty; and wavellite, very similar in its external characters to that of Devonshire, has been found about 10 m. SE of the city of Cork. Near the extremity of the granite district in Kilkenny, jaspers of various sizes occur a few feet below the surface in yellow clay. Co. Kerry is remarkable for transparent regular crystals, known under the name of Kerry stones; they are harder, larger, and possess more brilliancy than Bristol stones. Amethysts have been discovered near Kerryhead.—Pieces of native gold have, at different times, been discovered in a mountain stream flowing down from Cronebane, and on the declivity of a mountain 7 m. W of Ashlon, in co. Wicklow. Considerable quantities of silver appear formerly to have been obtained from the lead mines in Antrim, Sligo, and Tipperary; but the works were destroyed in the Irish insurrections in the time of Charles I. Copper is found at Ross island, in the Lake of Killarney; at Mucross; at Cronebane and Ballymurtagh, in co. Wicklow; and also in cos. Cork, Clare, Meath, Waterford, and Dublin. The total quantity and value of copper ore from I., sold in Swansea, in 1836, was 21,819 tons; value £163,865; in 1848, 12,808 tons; value, £82,039. Lead is found near Enniscorthy, in Wexford; and near Glendalough, in Wicklow, in the vicinity of Dublin, and in cos. Donegal, Down, Tipperary, and Clare. The total lead ore raised in 1845 was 1,944 tons; in 1848, 2,112 tons. Iron ore is very plentiful in various parts of I.; and in the middle of the 17th cent., iron-works were very common. The Arigna iron-ore yields 58.2 per cent. of metal when roasted; that of Kilkenny, 55.3 per cent. In the peninsula of Howth, grey ore of manganese has been obtained in consi-

derable quantity; it is also found in various parts of Kilkenny, in the mountains of Glanmore, in Mayo, and in several other cos. Cobalt is found in a copper mine at Mucross; and a variety of the earthy black cobalt ore of Werner has been found in the peninsula of Howth. Fragments of tin-stone occur in the gold mine in Wicklow. Porcelain earth, in purity equal to the China clay of Cornwall, has been found on the SW side of the same county.—Coal is met with in various parts of I. The prov. of Leinster seems to possess the most abundant supplies of coal. Castle-Comer colliery is the largest in the kingdom. The annual produce of the Kilkenny coal-field does not exceed 55,000 tons, and the principal Irish towns are supplied from Great Britain. In the prov. of Munster, a vein, the continuation of the Castle-Comer coal, is wrought in Tipperary; and another coal-field spreads over large portions of Clare, Limerick, Cork, and Kerry. To the N of Dublin are some small fields of bituminous coal.—Mineral springs are found in almost every co. They are chiefly chalybeates. Those most frequently visited by invalids are Lucan, near Dublin; Swadlinbar, in co. Cavan; Johnstown, near Urlingford, in co. Kilkenny; and Mallow, in co. Cork.

*Climate.* “The worst circumstance of the climate of Ireland,” remarks Arthur Young, “is that constant moisture without rain. Wet a piece of leather, and lay it in a room where there is neither sun nor fire, and it will not, in summer even, be dry in a month.” This opinion was obviously formed upon exceedingly defective grounds. Whenever a just comparison between I. as a whole and England as a whole can be formed, it will probably exhibit I. as more equable in temperature than England, freer from smart winters and prolonged frosts, less swept and withered with keen E winds, and freer from both exsiccating droughts and deluging falls of rain; but more subject to fogs and drizzling rains, more overhung by cheerless and dew-compelling clouds, more tried with fitful, sudden, and frequent changes of weather, and oftener scourged with squally and tempestuous winds. Yet, what the officers of the Ordnance-survey remark with reference to Londonderry, is strongly applicable to the whole country:—“To estimate with accuracy the presumed variations of this climate, long continued and carefully conducted observations would be necessary. In defect of such, it may be mentioned that the farmers believe and assert, that a marked amelioration has taken place—the times of seeding and harvest being both considerably advanced. In support of this opinion may be adduced the extending and successful cultivation of wheat, and the increased number of quails, a bird now comparatively abundant.” Mr. Whitley, in his valuable paper on the Climate of the British Islands, published in the *Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society*, says: “The observations necessary for forming a correct knowledge of the temp. of I. are very scarce, particularly in respect to its W coast. From the very accurately recorded observations I have obtained from Cork, it appears that the low lands on the S coast enjoy the high mean temp. of 54°. At Dublin the mean temp. is 49°, corresponding with the E coast of England in the same lat.; and the N of I. has a mean temp. of 48°. The summer-heat around Cork is greater than in any other part of the British Islands, being 65°; at Dublin it amounts to 59°, and in the N cos. to 58°. The general elevated character of the lands in the interior, with the large amount of evaporating surface presented by the bogs, tend to decrease the summer temperature of the inland districts. A compensating effect is in some measure produced from the thin, friable, and easily-heated soil of the limestone formations, which extend over three-fourths of the island. But the climate of I. at all seasons is more tempered, and modified by the influence of the Atlantic ocean than any other portion of the British isles. The prevailing warm W winds, loaded with moisture, sweep over the land, producing cool damp summers, and mild wet winters, and equalizing the temp. of the different seasons to a remarkable degree.”—The aggregate fall of rain among the W mountains, and on the low grounds between them and the sea, is believed to be very great compared to that of central and eastern England, but has not been sufficiently ascertained, to warrant any definite statement as to its amount. The fall at Dublin is said to vary from about 20 to 31 in.; at Belfast, from 20 to 35 in.; at Cork, from 30 to 54½ in.; and at Londonderry, from 26 to 35 in. But as this current statement, hitherto regarded as the most correct one, makes the mean annual fall at the last of these places to be 31 in.,—a result recently ascertained to be 2 1-5 in. below the fact,—we obviously must regard all past observations as in the aggregate exceedingly uncertain, or as at best establishing the mere general circumstance of very wide variations in humidity between different places, and even at the same place in different years. The mean quantity of rain falling in the under-mentioned localities, exhibits Dublin as the driest, and Cork as the wettest, locality in which the observations were made:

	Quantity.	Average of year.
Dublin,	30·87	6
Belfast,	34·96	6
Castle-Comer,	37·80	18
Cork,	40·20	6
Derry,	31·12	7

Dr. Kane is of opinion, that we may safely estimate the average quantity of rain which falls over the entire surface of I. at 36 in.; and the entire mass precipitated every year at 100,712,631,640 cubic yds.—At Dublin, the months in the order or degrees of dryness, are June, February, April, March, May, October, January, September, August, November, July, December; at Belfast, they are June, March, April, February, May, November, October, August, December, January, September, July.

*Soils.* The soils of I., as compared with those of England and Scotland, are nearly uniform throughout the kingdom: the varieties of them, indeed, are sufficiently numerous; but, with few exceptions, they all belong to one class or genus. Clay soils, in the sense of strong, stubborn, tenacious, retentive clays, such as those of Oxfordshire, High Suffolk, and some parts of Essex, Surrey, and other English counties, do not exist in I. Soils of aluminous mixture, indeed, are not uncommon, and they even possess enough of tenacity to be locally designated stiff soils; but they are highly friable compared to strictly clay soils, and cannot with propriety be designated by a stronger epithet than argillaceous. Sandy soils similar to those of Low Suffolk and of Godalming in Surrey,—chalky soils similar to those which abound in Surrey, Hampshire, Sussex, Wiltshire, and some other English cos.,—ferruginous gravelly soils similar to those of some parts of Middlesex, —and uncoloured gravelly soils similar to the ‘sharp’ gravels and ‘hungry’ moulds of many parts of Scotland, are seldom or never met with in I. The greatly predominant soil, in all districts of the country except the moorish and the marshy, or such as exhibit carpetings or deep beds of bog in superincumbence on the natural soil, is a fertile loam with a rocky substratum, extensively rich and friable, partly stiffish and inclined to clay, and partly shallow, rocky, and fit chiefly to be disposed in luxuriant pasture. The prevailing loams are comparatively light; and are fertile, not only on account of their component parts, but because they rest on a calcareous subsoil, and are mixed with limestone rubble. The argillaceous loams are in some places, especially in co. Tyrone, so strong as to be a good material for bricks. The shallow rocky loams prevail in the N of Clare, in most of Roscommon, and in parts of Galway, Mayo, Limerick, and other cos.; they throw out a luxuriant herbage, remarkable for its excellent adaptation to pasturage. A dark, friable, dry, sandy loam prevails in part of Limerick and Tipperary, of a kind equally adapted to grazing and tillage, seldom experiencing a season too wet or a summer too dry, and so rich that, if it be preserved in a clean state, it will yield good cereal crops for a considerable succession of years. The aggregate of fertile loams, or even of all kinds of calcareous soils, is not great in the mountainous sections of Ulster; yet they carpet and enrich a very great proportion of the valley ground, and produce an astonishing alternation of contrasts to the ferruginous, moorish, sterile soils, on the intersecting uplands. A rich soil of great depth and rather peculiar character prevails in the low grounds adjacent to the Fergus and the Lower Shannon, and locally bears the name of *corcass* land; it seems evidently to have been formed by fluvial deposit, and closely resembles the celebrated carse lands in the valleys of the Forth and the Tay in Scotland, but is not so adhesive or so powerfully argillaceous; and it has a subsoil of blue silt, differing nothing in substantial character from the upper soil, and capable of being advantageously turned up, to any depth and at any time, by the plough or the

spade. "I. has the most humid climate, but it has also the most friable soil. If the clay of the lias, or of the Weald of Kent, were largely developed in I., it would present a scene of cold sterility. But its light warm soil, and moist air, are peculiarly fitted for the production of the potato, which has yielded abundant crops, under the most wretched system of culture. This root everywhere delights in a free open soil, with plenty of moisture; and, under nearly similar conditions of climate, has been also extensively cultivated in Lancashire, Cornwall, and in the SW of Scotland. Under a good system of culture the soil of I. would produce large supplies of roots and green fodder; the number of store cattle might be greatly increased, and many fed at home. The surface is mainly covered with a soil derived from limestone, or from grauwacke mixed with trap, and considering its adaptation to the quantity of rain which falls, and that the temperature of the S part is higher than any other portion of the British isles, and that the N is warmer than the productive lowlands of Scotland, it becomes evident that I. has agricultural capabilities, which, if properly developed under a good system, would render it one of the most prolific countries of the substantial necessities of life in Europe." [Whitley.]

*Waste lands.*] The following table exhibits the quantity of cultivated and uncultivated land in the several cos. of I. in 1841:—

Counties.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated, capable of improvement.	Unprofitable.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Antrim, . . .	336,400	218,870	119,136	674,406
Armagh, . . .	168,000	92,430	51,233	309,663
Carlow, . . .	173,000	34,000	15,021	222,021
Cavan, . . .	265,400	160,500	61,720	487,620
Clare, . . .	579,000	104,400	88,044	771,444
Cork, . . .	1,118,000	361,000	150,056	1,629,056
Donegal, . . .	507,000	417,920	175,951	1,100,871
Down, . . .	349,000	126,170	89,481	564,651
Dublin, . . .	158,130	49,920	21,071	230,121
E. Meath, . . .	465,000	40,120	26,078	531,198
Fermanagh, . . .	254,000	120,500	84,689	459,189
Galway, . . .	829,200	532,040	242,479	1,603,719
Kerry, . . .	556,300	348,410	144,483	1,049,193
Kildare, . . .	259,990	87,670	35,875	383,535
Kilkenny, . . .	403,100	58,110	25,367	486,567
King's co., . . .	341,310	80,900	34,954	457,164
Leitrim, . . .	222,250	128,200	64,189	414,639
Limerick, . . .	460,000	114,110	52,425	626,535
Londonderry, . . .	279,400	172,070	80,214	531,684
Longford, . . .	121,900	41,460	58,963	217,323
Louth, . . .	157,000	12,000	10,415	179,415
Mayo, . . .	502,900	565,570	212,302	1,280,772
Monaghan, . . .	257,000	12,000	21,932	290,932
Queen's co., . . .	311,100	47,120	22,966	381,186
Roscommon, . . .	348,100	122,460	91,113	561,573
Silgo, . . .	143,500	189,930	66,953	400,383
Tipperary, . . .	693,200	114,490	92,329	899,019
Tyrone, . . .	539,900	155,020	91,988	766,908
Waterford, . . .	348,500	44,230	33,016	425,736
West Meath, . . .	287,330	51,200	36,581	375,111
Wexford, . . .	340,470	156,200	58,828	555,498
Wicklow, . . .	281,000	102,000	61,792	504,792
	12,125,280	4,900,000	2,416,664	19,441,944

*Agricultural produce.*] The amount of land under cultivation in I., and the actual produce, in the years 1847 and 1848, were thus officially returned:—

	CULTIVATION IN 1847.		
	Statute acres.	Quarters.	
Wheat, . . .	743,871	2,926,733	
Oats, . . .	2,200,870	11,521,606	
Barley, . . .	253,587	1,379,029	
Bere, . . .	49,068	274,016	
Rye, . . .	12,415	63,094	
Beans, . . .	23,768	84,456	
	3,313,579	16,248,934	
Potatoes, . . .	284,116	2,048,195	
Turnips, . . .	370,344	5,760,616	
Mangel Wurzel, . . .	13,766	247,269	
Other green crops, . . .	59,512	729,064	
	727,738	8,785,144	

	Acres.	Cwts.
Flax, . . .	58,312	349,872
Hay, . . .	1,138,946	2,190,317

## CULTIVATION IN 1848.

	Acres.	Quarters.
Wheat, . . .	565,746	1,555,500
Oats, . . .	1,922,406	9,050,490
Barley, . . .	243,235	1,135,120
Bere, . . .	53,058	263,415
Rye, . . .	21,502	105,375
Beans, . . .	25,823	95,551
Pease, . . .	24,926	76,957
	2,856,696	12,282,408
Potatoes, . . .	742,899	2,880,814
Turnips, . . .	255,058	3,643,074
Mangel Wurzel, . . .	12,588	220,875
Other green crops, . . .	32,656	424,382
	1,043,201	7,169,145
Flax, . . .	53,863	267,983
Hay, . . .	1,154,302	2,287,133

It is necessary to explain, that owing to the unsettled state of the country, it was found impossible to collect returns in the cos. of Waterford and Tipperary, so that in drawing a comparison between the results of 1848 and of 1847, we must deduct the returns for those two cos. The total number of acres under cultivation in 1847 was found to be 5,238,575. If we deduct therefrom the area cultivated in Waterford and Tipperary, 432,977, the remainder will show the extent which is fairly to be brought into the comparison—viz. 4,805,598. The acreage under cultivation in 1848 was 5,108,062, showing the gratifying fact that an increase has been made in one year of 302,464 acres, exclusive of the two cos. here mentioned. If the increase in those counties has kept pace with that of the remainder of I., the increased breadth of land brought under cultivation in one year amounted to 329,715 acres, or more than 6 per cent. With respect, however, to the number of acres devoted, in 1847 and 1848 respectively, to the production of the different cereal grains, there was a falling off in the breadth of wheat sown in 1848 of 178,125 acres, or 24 per cent., upon the quantity in 1847. Of oats there was a lessened sowing of 278,464 acres, or 12½ per cent. Of barley the cultivation was lessened by 40,552 acres, or nearly 14 per cent. On the other hand, the tendency in the Irish peasantry to continue dependent for a great part of their daily food upon potatoes, was shown in the marked increase of the land devoted to their growth, which amounted to 458,783 acres, or 160 per cent. upon the number of acres so employed in 1847. It appears that the produce of the cereal grains in bushels, and of potatoes in tons, in each of the two years, was as follows:—

	1847. bushels.	1848. bushels.
Wheat, . . .	314	220
Barley, . . .	390	373
Oats, . . .	418	376
Bere, . . .	446	397
Rye, . . .	406	392
Potatoes, . . .	728	387

If the deficiency here shown were equally great in Great Britain, we can be at no loss to account for the very large importations of foreign grain imported during the 12 months from August 1848 to August 1849. [Porter.] The total extent of land under crops in 1849 was 5,543,748 acres, and in 1850 it was 5,758,292 acres, showing an increase between 1849 and 1850 of 214,544 acres. This increase was by no means general throughout each description of crop, some having materially diminished. The following table shows the changes in the extent of each:

Crops.	1849. acres.	1850. acres.
Wheat, . . .	687,646	604,867
Oats, . . .	2,061,185	2,142,596
Barley, . . .	290,690	263,350
Bere, . . .	60,819	57,811
Rye, . . .	20,168	18,342
Beans and pease, . . .	53,916	62,590
Total of grain crops, . . .	3,174,424	3,149,556
Green crops, total, . . .	1,167,630	1,317,572
Flax, . . .	60,314	91,040
Meadow and clover, . . .	1,141,371	1,200,124
General total, . . .	5,543,748	5,758,292

These figures indicate a disposition on the part of farmers to fall back upon the classes of crops best adapted to the soil and climate, giving the preference to oats and flax,—the latter crop



showing an increase of one-half on that of 1849. The extent of flax cultivated in each province in 1847, 1849, and 1850, was as follows:

Provinces.	1847. acres.	1849. acres.	1850. acres.
Leinster,	1,644	741	1,801
Munster,	1,566	937	2,094
Ulster,	53,701	57,651	85,065
Connaught,	1,811	885	2,080
Total,	58,312	60,314	91,040

There was but little alteration in the proportions of each class of crops between 1850 and former years; the increase in the cultivation of potatoes was chiefly amongst the small farmers. Other green crops had increased with all classes; flax had advanced most in proportionate extent in the class above 5 to 15 acres in holding. In the rates of produce a material reduction was observable in wheat and potatoes, whereas oats and barley exhibited a slight improvement. The varying rates of produce in the same localities in different years, and the accident which places some districts high as wheat-growing co., though not remarkable for the richness of their soil, show the great uncertainty in the produce of this crop in I. In 1847 and 1849 the co. of Louth stood highest in the rate of wheat produce, in 1848 Londonderry and Wicklow, and in 1850 Fermanagh and Sligo. In oats, Dublin held the highest place in 1847 and 1850, Wicklow in 1848, and Louth in 1849. [*Larcom's Report.*]

**Live stock.]** The stock of various kinds that existed at the time of the census of 1841, and in 1847 and 1848, affords a strong commentary upon the distress occasioned by the failure of the potato harvest. It appears that, comparing 1847 with 1841, the number of horses was lessened by 54,348; but the deficiency on farms not exceeding 15 acres amounted to 163,692, while there was actually an increase on farms above that area of 109,344. Of asses there was an increase of 21,714; but on the small farms there was a falling-off in the number of these animals amounting to 32,955, while there was an increase on the larger holdings of 54,669. With respect to horned cattle, there was an increase of 527,114; but this was wholly experienced on the larger farms, there having been on those not exceeding 15 acres, fewer in 1847 than in 1841 by 336,471, and consequently more on the larger holdings by 863,585. The number of sheep was less on the whole in 1847 than in 1841 by 109,565; but the deficiency on the small farms was 529,225, while there was an increase on the larger. The greater deficiency has been experienced in regard to pigs and poultry, which in I. are especially domestic animals, and, as might be expected, the falling-off is found chiefly among the cottier class. On the larger farms, those above 30 acres in extent, there were 42,643 more pigs in 1847 than in 1841; whereas on all the smaller holdings the difference was very greatly in the other direction. On farms not exceeding 1 acre the numbers were 295,048 in 1841, and only 19,108 in 1847. On farms from 1 to 5 acres there were 251,587 in 1841, and only 21,422 in 1847. In the next division, between 5 and 15 acres, the numbers were 350,825 in 1841, and no more than 80,098 in 1847. Persons holding from 15 to 30 acres kept, in 1841, 215,340, and only 113,864 in 1847; while on farms above that size, the numbers, which were 240,301 in 1841, had advanced to 232,984 in 1847. The entire deficiency of this description of stock between the two periods was 835,625, or more than 60 per cent. The diminished number of poultry was 3,378,279 upon 8,334,427, or 40 per cent., which, as in the case of the pigs, applied entirely to the smaller farms. On those above 15 acres there was an increased number, amounting to 1,048,974, showing that the lessened number on the smaller farms was 4,427,253. The lessened number of pigs is clearly referable to the failure of the food upon which those animals are usually kept in the cabins of the peasantry; and, as regards poultry, it could hardly be expected that a starving people should continue to rear things so easily convertible into food, or into that which would procure food for the owners. The total numbers of each kind of stock for 1849 are contrasted below with the totals as they were in 1850.—In 1849: Horses and mules, 548,288; asses, 117,939; cattle, 2,771,139; sheep, 1,777,111; pigs, 795,463; goats, 182,988; poultry, 6,323,001. Total value, £25,692,616. In 1850: Horses, 548,719; asses, 123,412; cattle, 2,917,949; sheep, 1,876,096; pigs, 927,502; goats, 201,112; poultry, 6,945,146. Total value, £26,351,959. A comparison of these tables with the census of 1841, shows that by the year 1847 an immense alteration had taken place in the relative numbers and wealth of the different classes of farmers.—The value of stock on farms of the two classes under 5 acres, having fallen from £4,771,504 in 1841, to £1,263,919 in 1847; and the smaller classes having since steadily decreased, while the stock on the larger classes of farms has augmented in a proportion considerably greater. The following table places in contrast the value held by each class in 1841, 1847, and 1850:

Classes of holdings.	1841.	1847.	1850.
Holdings under 1 acre,	£1,705,975	£460,735	£423,382
Do., 1 to 5 acres,	3,065,529	803,184	612,011
Do., 5 to 15 acres,	5,706,990	4,101,626	3,617,802
Do., 15 to 30 acres,	3,683,864	5,186,442	5,342,625
Do., above 30 acres,	6,943,460	14,268,558	16,947,139
Total,	£21,105,818	24,820,547	26,951,950

These figures can scarcely be considered otherwise than favourable.

able in regard to production. They indicate, by the increase of large farms, the increasing investment of capital in agriculture, and the abandonment of that unskilled husbandry which attended minute subdivision of the land without capital. The increase of live stock on the larger farms is a direct consequence of this change. Higher intelligence employed in cultivation appears leading to the increase of flax, of green crops, and of oats, in preference to other cereal produce; while, on the whole, in spite of a series of bad and indifferent seasons, there is an increased quantity of land brought into tillage, and an increased amount of live stock maintained in the country. These changes have been concurrent with a rapid decrease of the pop. The present agricultural condition of the country is more favourable than that which it has replaced, or is replacing; and in regard to those who remain, there can be little reason to regard the future with apprehension. [*Official Report.*]

**Farms.]** Though estates throughout I. are, on the average, larger than in England, farms of all kinds, but especially those which are entirely arable, are very much smaller. Farms of considerable size seem, in all modern periods, to have existed in every part of the kingdom, particularly in the N; but ever since the close of the American war, they have been rapidly increasing in number, and dwindling down to littleness in extent. "Farms," says Mr. Newenham, "appear to have been diminishing in Ireland for many years past. Large farms of from 500 to 1,500 and 2,000 acres once so common in Ireland, hold actually no sort of proportion to farms of from 10 to 30 or 40 acres." The parliamentary commissioners, in their recent report on the tenure of land in Ireland, say: "Speaking generally with respect to the occupation of land in Ireland, we find that it is usually held under terminable leases for various terms, or by tenants from year to year. The practice of letting land to middle-men is now rare; but the system has entailed upon the country the most injurious consequences, and has been a fruitful source of the difficulties which embarrass those who endeavour to place the occupation of land in I. upon a safe and wholesome footing. Looking generally through I., we believe that the larger proportion of the land is occupied by tenants-at-will. The most general, and indeed almost universal, topic of complaint brought before us in every part of I., was the 'want of tenure,' to use the expression most commonly employed by the witnesses. It is well known that the want of 'fixity of tenure' has for some time past been sedulously put forward as one of the most prominent grievances of the Irish tenant." According to the census of 1841, the number and sizes of farms in I. were—

FARMS.					
Provinces.	From 1 to 5 a.	From 5 to 15 a.	From 15 to 30 a.	Above 30 acres.	
Leinster,	49,152	45,595	20,584	17,889	133,220
Munster,	57,028	61,320	27,481	16,557	162,386
Ulster,	100,817	98,992	25,029	9,591	234,499
Connaught,	99,918	45,221	5,790	4,275	155,204
Total,	306,915	251,128	78,954	48,312	685,309

The following table exhibits the number and the average size of farms, compared with the total area and area of arable land of each prov.:

Provinces.	Number of farms.	Total area in acres.	Area of arable lands.	Aver. size of farms.
Leinster,	132,220	4,860,642	3,961,188	29.7 acres.
Munster,	162,386	6,049,886	3,874,613	23.8 ..
Ulster,	234,499	5,466,648	3,407,539	14.5 ..
Connaught,	155,204	4,388,166	2,220,960	14.3 ..

The cause which most frequently, at the present day, leads to the eviction of tenants, is the wish of the proprietor to increase the size of the holdings, with a view to the better cultivation of the land; and when it is seen in the evidence, and in the returns upon the size of farms, how minute those holdings are frequently found to be, previous to the change, it cannot be denied that such a step is, in many cases, absolutely necessary, and called for by a due regard to the interest of both landlord and tenant. Some witnesses, who put forward most strongly, as matter of complaint, the consolidation of small holdings, into what they call large farms, in answer to the further question—"To what size were the farms brought?" describe them as enlarged to the extent of 25, 20, or even 10 acres! It frequently happens that upon the expiration of a long lease, a landlord finds his property occupied by a multitude of paupers, who had obtained an occupation of a few roods or acres, either through the want of a clause against subletting in the former demise, or the failure of the landlord through some legal defect or his own neglect to enforce that covenant, if existing. Many of these poor people are found living in a most miserable way, and quite incapable of managing their land properly, or so as to derive from their small holdings a sufficient supply even of food for their subsistence. It was ascertained, at the census of 1841, that, in Great Britain, 1,000 persons engaged as occupiers and labourers, in raising food, provided for the wants in that respect, of themselves and of 2,984 persons, while in I. the like number of persons, viz. 1,000, so engaged, provided food for no more than 511 persons beyond themselves—in 1851, the number of occupiers not employing labourers—the lowest description of farmers—in England was 94,883, out of a pop. of 13,000,000; whereas, in I., a pop. of 7,700,000 furnished 564,274 of such small farmers. "The pop. of I.," says Sir Robert

Kane, "has been determined by the census of 1841 to be 8,176,134 souls, of whom 4,000,000 are males, and of these 2,250,000 may be considered as of the labouring age. Now, as we have in Ireland 13,500,000 acres of arable land, there is precisely the allocation, to every 100 acres, of 17 labouring men; but as of the Irish pop. but two-thirds are actually engaged in agriculture, it may be considered that to every 100 statute acres of land there are 11 labourers dependent for employment; and on those again are dependent for support females, old men, and children, to the number of 29; and these persons must be supported by the land out of its produce before profits can be reckoned, or the value and proportion of rent can be struck—in all 40 persons, of whom 20 are females, 9 are feeble old men and children, and 11 are working men. Thus for the whole country:

Agricultural females,	2,709,286
Old men and boys,	1,219,178
Agricultural labourers,	1,490,107

Total, 5,418,571

Now, if we refer to the circumstances under which the working of land upon the large farm system is conducted, we shall find, as well from practice as from the estimates put forward by the best-informed writers, such as Professor Low, that on a farm of 500 acres there will be permanently engaged the farmer, his steward, or foreman, and 20 workmen. There will be at certain seasons extra field-work done by men, women, and children, who, if not of the families of the workmen, must be drawn from some source external to the farm, and must, except at those short periods, live upon means not derived from farm labour. The staff of the farm employed upon and living by means of it is reckoned as above. Now, let us suppose our 13,500,000 acres of arable land in Ireland arranged and cultivated on this plan, there will be employed 22 persons to each 500 acres; but we have seen, that upon 500 acres there are dependent 55 working males. Employment cannot therefore be afforded to one-half, indeed but two-fifths, and there will remain:

Females,	1,725,671
Old men and male children,	731,508
Labourers,	894,063

3,351,242

for whom the land can afford no employment; who cannot by their labour earn in any way their share of the produce of the land; and the question, truly important for the landlord who has to seek for rent, as well as for the farmer who has to pay rent, is the manner in which these three and one-third millions of useless and surplus people are to be removed, or in some way provided for."

*Labourers.* "We must not omit to notice"—say the commissioners—"the system which prevails in a greater or less degree in every part of I., of letting land for one or more crops, commonly known as the *con-acre* system. The land so let is in some few districts called *quarter-land* or *rood-land*. Much has been said in condemnation of this system; but still we are convinced that some practice of this nature is essential to the comfort, almost to the existence, of the Irish peasant. Under ordinary circumstances, the wages of his labour alone will not enable him to purchase food and other necessities, and to pay even the most moderate rent. It becomes therefore necessary that he should resort to some other means for procuring subsistence, and these can only be found in the occupation of a piece of ground which shall furnish a crop of potatoes for food. This he generally takes from some farmer in the neighbourhood, upon conditions which vary much according to the particular terms of agreement respecting the ploughing, the manure, the seed, &c. Although the taker of *con-acre* ground may, in ordinary years, receive a good return for the rent which he assumes, yet, as the amount of such rent, although not unreasonable in respect of the farmer's expenditure upon the land, is always large with reference to the ordinary means of a labourer; a bad season, and a failure in the crops leave the latter in a distressed condition, subject to a demand which he is wholly unable to meet." The potato is eaten at every meal, and throughout all seasons of the year. A failure of the crop, or even an impropriet use of an abundant supply, frequently, however, causes the necessity of resorting to the use of other species of food; and oatmeal, eggs, butter, lard, dripping, and herrings, are then partially though sparingly substituted for it, particularly in the months of May, June, and July, when the old crop is exhausted, and the new is not yet ready for digging, an operation which generally commences about the first week in August. Milk, after being skimmed, as in the state of buttermilk, in the districts where dairy farms abound, is also much used; the quantity consumed being regulated by the nature of the district and the consequent supply, which varies according to the season of the year, being of course least plentiful in the winter months. When the supply of milk fails, water becomes the only beverage of the working class; and their dry meal of potatoes has then a relish imparted to it by the addition of a herring, which is generally eaten by the heads of the family, the children dipping the potatoes into the sauce in which it was cooked. Illness appears to be most prevalent at those seasons of the year when water is used as the only beverage. Frequently lard with salt is boiled in water, and the potatoes dipped into this mixture, which is called 'dip.'

*Agricultural exports.* The recent general increase

of the produce of the soil, indirect as well as direct, or inclusive of its connection with grazing, malting, the dairy, and the provision-trade, appears from the following comparative table of the average annual exports from I. to England in the triennial periods ending 25th March 1790, and 5th January 1826, and in 1849:—

ARTICLES.	1790.	1826.	1849.
Oxen, . . . . . No.	19,457	57,427	196,042
Sheep, . . . . . No.	62,929	255,682	255,682
Swine, . . . . . No.	5,685	73,913	110,787
Bacon and hams, . . . Cwts.	20,986	339,914	
Butter, . . . . . Do.	319,049	492,863	14,374
Wheat and wheat flour, . . Qrs.	112,256	525,640	318,426
Oats and oatmeal, . . . Do.	312,993	1,701,134	1,501,875

The provision trade of I. was at one period confined chiefly to Cork, but is now, in all its departments, very extensive also at Dublin, Belfast, Newry, and Limerick, and in the department of butter is diffused over the greater part of the kingdom. Pork hams, in enormous quantity and of excellent quality, are prepared at Belfast; bacon and hams are salted, in large quantities, at Belfast, Waterford, Clonmel, and Limerick; beef is cured, on a great scale, and assorted into three classes, called planters', India, and common beef, at Limerick and Cork; and the provision trade in general—increasingly subject, however, to a preference in England for the importation of the living animal rather than the prepared carcass—is very extensive in Dublin, Drogheda, Dundalk, Newry, Londonderry, Wexford, New Ross, Waterford, Clonmel, Cork, and Limerick. By much the greater part of this export trade is carried on with Liverpool, Bristol, and Glasgow! In 1845, the imports from I. into Liverpool were 3,511 tierces of beef, value £15,079; 18,997 barrels of pork, value £62,900; 262,677 cwts. of butter, value £1,076,975; 96,509 cwts. bacon and hams, value £217,145; 22,734 cwts. of lard, value £62,518; 863 tons of flax, value £37,837; 2,601,360 lbs. of wool, value £146,306; 92,663 cattle, value £1,204,619; 160,399 sheep and lambs, value £249,598; 306,275 pigs, value £689,121; 1,999 horses, value £39,980; 310,923 qrs. of wheat; 11,180 qrs. of barley; 208,095 qrs. of oats; 254 qrs. of rye; 3,260 qrs. of beans; 64 qrs. of pease; 10,111 qrs. of malt; 221,143 lbs. of oatmeal; and 389,658 lbs. of flour. The total value of Irish produce imported into Liverpool in 1838 was £5,559,047; in 1845, £5,883,498.

*Landed property.* In 1727, Mr. Brown computed the gross rental of I., exclusive of quit-rents, tithes, &c., at £2,824,000; in 1778, Mr. Young estimated it at £6,000,000; and, in 1812, Mr. Wakefield computed it to be £17,228,540 Irish. In 1827, Caesar Moreau, Esq., published, in his elaborate Statistical Account of Ireland, the following "attempt to estimate the public and private property of Ireland, and the result of much consideration, after consulting the ablest writers on political economy, and the latest authorities that bear upon the subject:—

Productive private property, . . . . .	£ 467,660,000
Unproductive do., . . . . .	87,000,000
Public property, . . . . .	9,000,000

Total of the public and private property, £563,660,000

#### PRODUCTIVE PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Lands cultivated in grain of all sorts, grass, hops, nurseries, gardens, &c., . . . . .	£ 300,160,000
Mines and minerals, . . . . .	2,000,000
Canals, tolls, and timber, . . . . .	2,000,000
Dwelling-houses, not included in the rent of lands, including warehouses and manufactories, . . . . .	70,000,000
Manufactured goods in progress to maturity and in a finished state, deposited in manufactories, warehouses, and shops, for sale, . . . . .	24,000,000
Foreign merchandise, deposited in the warehouses, shops, &c., either paid for, or virtually paid by debts owing to Ireland by foreigners, . . . . .	3,000,000

Irish shipping of every description employed in trade, including vessels on the stocks.	3,000,000
Agricultural property, consisting of grain, hay, straw, cheese, butter, and other productions of farms, including implements of husbandry.	10,000,000
Animals, viz., horses, horned cattle, sheep, hogs, goats, asses, deer, wild animals, and poultry.	50,000,000
Fisheries round the coast of Ireland, including inland fisheries.	3,500,000
<b>Total productive private property.</b>	<b>£467,660,000</b>

## UNPRODUCTIVE PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Waste lands at present unproductive, after including all such as are incapable of any improvement adequate to the expense, including ways and waters.	23,000,000
Household furniture, in dwelling-houses.	40,000,000
Wearing apparel, do.	3,200,000
Plate, jewels, and other ornamental articles, in dwelling-houses.	6,800,000
Specie in circulation and hoarded, viz., gold, silver, and copper coin.	4,000,000
<b>Total unproductive private property.</b>	<b>£87,000,000</b>

## PUBLIC PROPERTY.

Public buildings, as palaces, churches, hospitals, prisons, &c.	£5,000,000
Public arsenals, castles, forts, and all other places of defence, with the artillery stores, &c., thereto belonging.	4,000,000
<b>Total public property.</b>	<b>£9,000,000</b>

An elaborate estimate framed by Mr. Griffith, based principally on official valuations, and published in 1832 in his evidence on the Second Report of the Lords' committee on Tithes, exhibits the average rent of Ireland, exclusive of houses in Dublin, Cork, Belfast, Limerick, and other large towns, at 12s. 5½d. per statute acre, and states the total landed rental of Leinster at £3,472,450, of Munster at £3,801,540, of Ulster at £3,205,318, of Connaught at £2,236,170, and of Ireland at £12,715,478. This estimate exhibits the average rent per acre throughout Leinster at 14s. 7½d., throughout Munster at 13s. 0½d., throughout Ulster at 12s. 3½d., throughout Connaught at 10s. 9½d., and throughout Ireland at 12s. 9d.—In a recent work by Mr. G. L. Smyth, that writer, with the facts of the Poor-law valuation before him, and on the assumption of its being "understood to stand at between £13,000,000 and £14,000,000," attempts to show that the present annual rental of the whole country is about £21,394,675, and that, by the "easy process" of reclaiming waste lands, and quite irrespective of improved husbandry upon the lands already in cultivation, it might in a few years be augmented by the sum of £5,000,000.

*Manufactures.*] In their Second Report published in 1838, the Railway commissioners, after giving a summary view of the linen and the woollen manufactures of I., make the following general remarks upon Irish productive industry:—"Besides these, it can scarcely be said that there is any other manufacture in I. conducted on so great a scale as to be of so much national importance. Under the now exploded system of bounties and protecting duties, several manufactories sprang up; but not being the natural growth of circumstances favourable to their establishment, most of them gradually disappeared as soon as the undue encouragement which had created and stimulated them was withdrawn. Still there are to be found, in every district, establishments of various kinds conducted in the most creditable manner; but they do not exist to such an extent as to claim especial notice in a general view of the employment of the people. If it were necessary to show that there is no inaptitude among the population for manufactures, for such even as require the greatest ingenuity, neatness, and skill, we would select the damask of Lisburn and the tabinets of Dublin. The worked muslins produced in many parts of

I., and very often from the poorest cabins, rival those of France, and are sold at half the price; embroidery on silks and satins is also carried to great perfection, and schools have been established in many places for the instruction of the female peasantry in this beautiful art. But while the manufactures which were formed under the system of bounties have been sinking into decay, the various processes to which agricultural produce is subjected have been gradually extended and improved. Grinding, malting, brewing, and distilling, have made great progress within these few years. Until lately, the mills of Bristol and Liverpool enjoyed almost the exclusive advantage of converting the Irish wheat into flour: that process is now performed in I. Great breweries have been established in Dublin and Cork. Irish porter is now largely exported to England; and the Dublin bottled porter successfully rivals the London porter, even in London itself. The quality of Irish produce has also considerably improved. Irish butter, Irish pork, and Irish beef, bring greater prices in the English market than they did some years ago; while the quantity produced and exported has much increased. The districts in which these improvements are most manifest are those of Cork, Waterford, Limerick, and Belfast. From N to S, indications of progressive improvement are everywhere visible, and most so in places which are accessible to the immediate influence of steam-navigation; but these signs of growing prosperity are unhappily not so discernible in the condition of the labouring people as in the amount of the produce of their labour."

At a recent meeting of the Royal Dublin society, Mr. Anketell read a paper on the subject of Irish manufactures, with the view of refuting the prevalent idea that I. is unsuited for them. The earliest notice to be found of Irish manufacture occurred in the reign of Edward I., when an act of parliament was passed, which gave leave for all kinds of merchandise to be exported from I., although at that period there were some commodities which must have interfered with those of England, particularly wool and leather. A similar enactment was made in the reign of Edward III., in 1360, when a brisk export trade in woollen cloths was carried on with the N of Italy,—the Irish *cadow* or coverlet being then an article in high repute. At the time those enactments were made, the only towns in I. mentioned as being of any mercantile importance were Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Ross, Drogheda, Trim, and Kilkenny. The commodities of I. at this period consisted chiefly of hides and fish,—as salmon, herrings or hake,—wool, linen, cloth, and skins of wild beasts; but in 1463, "the tradesmen of London having made heavy complaints against the importation of foreign manufactured wares, Irish manufactures were excepted, and from the list then given, she must at that time have advanced in the industrial arts." Mr. Anketell combats the opinion that, because the staple manufactures of woollen, cotton, linen, and silk, for which Dublin was once so celebrated, had greatly diminished, all manufacturing industry had left the capital. A great improvement has taken place of late years in many branches of manufacturing industry in Dublin,—as, for instance, coach-building. A splendid variety of broad-cloths was made at the Virginia mills; and the article called Tweeds is now being exported from I. into Scotland and England. In ship-building much progress has been made; and in those branches of manufacture connected with consumable commodities, such as distilleries, breweries, foundries, tan-yards, chemical works, and soap-boiling, Dublin more than maintains its original pre-eminence. In the cos. of Dublin, Kildare, King's co., Queen's co., and Kilkenny, woollen cloths



friezes, flannel, and broad-cloth, were manufactured to a considerable extent; but in Wicklow, the manufacture of frieze and flannel was nearly extinct, and co. Carlow was exclusively agricultural. In the co. of Wexford, linen manufactures were now nearly extinct, except in home use; in Meath there were paper-mills; and straw-bonnet manufacturing was carried on in the principal towns. In the cos. of Westmeath and Longford there were no manufactures except of coarse woollens, friezes, flannels, &c., for domestic use; in Louth a good deal of linen was manufactured; in Drogheda flax-spinning was carried on to a considerable extent, and there were also an immense distillery, and several iron-foundries, which gave extensive employment to the people. In Tipperary the ancient staple trade of woollen cloth was nearly extinct, except for domestic use; excellent flannels and blankets, however, were still made, and there was a large cotton-manufactory at Clonmel. In co. Waterford woollen cloth and glass were manufactured; and there were also paper-mills and some large foundries in that district. In the co. of Cork flannel and frieze were made in most places; blue cloths of a particular dye were made near Bandon and Carbery; and woollen cloth, woollen yarn, camlets, and stuffs, are made at Blarney and Glanmire. Calicoes are made at Templemartin; and there was also a paper-mill near Bandon. In the city of Cork the tanning of leather is extensively carried on, besides iron-foundries, paper-mills, glass-manufactories, cloth factories, distilleries, &c. In Kerry there are some manufactures of coarse linens, but the woollen trade is only carried on there for domestic purposes. In co. Limerick coarse friezes are made for domestic use; and in the city there are several paper-mills, distilleries, and one large manufactory for lace. In co. Clare there are no manufactures, except of coarse linens and friezes for domestic use. In Mayo much linen is manufactured in the cabins of the poor, and in most parts of the co. there are extensive bleach-greens, and roughly manufactured linens, friezes, woollen stockings, and straw-bonnets. In co. Galway much coarse frieze and woollen stockings are manufactured. In Roscommon there are no manufactures of any note; but in Leitrim excellent stuffs and coarse friezes are made. The linen trade is still the staple commodity of co. Sligo. Coarse woollens, flannels, and stockings are also extensively made there. Belfast has been remarkable for its cotton manufacture since 1777. Together with linen-yarn establishments and collateral branches of manufactures, the present number of factories at Belfast nearly amount to 100. Among other manufactures carried on successfully in Belfast, are those of cambries, calicoes, paper, and the 'flowering trade,' or ornamental work, which give a vast deal of employment; the foundry business and ship-building are also important branches. Great employment is given along the E coast of Down and Antrim, and part of Derry, Armagh, and Monaghan, in what is called 'the flowering trade,' a vast quantity of the produce of which is sent, weekly, to Glasgow and London; and cambries, lawns, and checks, were made in the cottages of the poor. The extent of hand-looms, connected with the linen trade of Belfast, is very great. The manufactures produced in the cos. of Monaghan, Cavan, Fermanagh, Donegal, and Derry, consist chiefly of linen, coarse woollens, and Tweeds.

*Linen manufacture.* Since 1825, when the commercial intercourse between I. and Great Britain was placed on the footing of a coasting-trade, no means exist of ascertaining with exactness the extent of the linen manufacture; yet evidence of the most satisfactory kind can be furnished of its having very materially improved in both quantity and quality. "Great and important changes," says a gentleman of the highest authority on

the subject, "have resulted from the abandonment of the system of bounties on exports, from the improvement in machinery, and from the application of more extended capital; all of which have, however, tended to expel the smaller manufacturers, dealers, and bleachers, and to diminish profits; but they have secured to the consumer a more perfect and regularly-manufactured fabric, and at a vastly cheaper rate; and they have enabled us to see more clearly our capabilities of carrying on the manufacture in competition with the linen manufactures of the Continent. The result of the whole is satisfactory. We are now certain that we can manufacture almost every description of linen, except lace and fine cambric, as cheap and as well, perhaps cheaper and better, than any other country. The improvements in bleaching, also, having been placed on a more secure basis by science and experience, have contributed to raise the character of our goods, and I feel confident those causes will continue further to operate in advancing the character of Irish linens. The bounties on export, though so long regarded as the only support of our manufacture of coarse fabrics, encouraged the production of extremely low and worthless articles, on the value of which the bounty became a handsome profit; and such goods were, of course, despised when brought into comparison with those of the Continent in foreign markets. A better description is now made for export, and the character of the manufacture is advancing. The machinery for spinning yarn has been improved to a degree that has outrun the most sanguine expectations. The extension of spinning-mills is now most rapid." The bleach-greens, 40 years ago, were twice as numerous as at present; yet those which now exist do much more work; and 10 can be named in the county of Antrim, which are more than equal to 40 of the largest in 1790. "I know ten establishments," said a highly respectable witness in 1840, "that have, within the last year, exported more than £50,000 value each of linen to foreign markets. I also know four manufacturers that have, within the last year, manufactured upwards of £30,000 in value each." The first flax-spinning machinery in I. was established at Cork in 1805, and consisted of 212 spindles for canvass yarns. In 1815 there were in Ulster 5 mills, the largest having 1,024 and the smallest 300 spindles. In the same year there were 2 in Leinster and 7 in Munster. About 1825 English and Scotch yarns began to be imported for the first time into I., and completely undersold the hand-spun article. The first extensive factory on the wet-spinning system erected in I. was in 1828. About 1835 a considerable export of yarns to France began to find its way from Great Britain and I. From 3,000,000 kilogrammes, or about 60,000 cwt., in 1838, it increased to 10,000,000 kilogr., or about 200,000 cwt., in 1841. Of this export I. had a large share, equal to about £300,000; and nearly one-fourth of her spinning-machinery, in the latter year, was working for France. The yarns produced in 1841 were valued at £1,700,000. But the French having placed a heavy duty on our yarns in 1842, so great was the check, that in 1843 the production of yarn in I. had fallen to £1,200,000. In fact, the Irish flax-spinners considered this impolitic act of the French government as a crushing blow to their trade. That these gloomy anticipations have not been realized is a most satisfactory circumstance, and shows strongly the great progress which the linen manufacture has since made. In 1841 there were 41 mills, with 260,000 spindles; in 1850 there were 73 mills, with 339,000 spindles; and adding the new mills now being built, and the additions of machinery now making to existing concerns, Mr. J. McAdam calculated, there would be, by the end of 1851, about 400,000 spindles in operation. The annual export of linens from I. averages about 70,000,000 yds. value £4,000,000.

*Cotton manufacture.* The cotton manufacture, after flourishing for a series of years, principally in Belfast and its vicinity, very seriously declined, and seemed almost tending to extinction; but, viewed in its general connection with I., it may be regarded as having decidedly revived. Mr. Otway, an assistant hand-loom weaver commissioner, said in 1840, "Some large cotton mills have been lately established in I., and intelligent manufacturers have embarked in the trade; and some of the finest specimens of calico prints in the London market are Irish manufacture." Mr. Stewart, factory inspector for I. and Scotland, said, at the close of the same year, "I have great pleasure in reporting that, during my circuit in I., the flax and cotton factory owners generally admitted, that for some time past there has been a tolerably brisk demand for the articles manufactured by them. There is a considerable augmentation of the number of persons employed in the cotton and flax factories." Since 1840, several new factories have been established; and but for violent hostility on the part of Irish artisans to the introduction of skilful mechanics from England, considerably more would now have been in operation.

*Woollen manufacture.* The woollen manufacture is thus succinctly and luminously exhibited by Mr. Otway: "It appears that the woollen manufactures in I., previous to the present century, were treated as an exotic, artificially nurtured, and not naturally developed. Bounties, protecting duties, and monopolies, invited a host of minor manufacturers, with small capitals, to enter the business; and their competition, for a time, kept up the nominal rate of wages. Monopolies in I., as elsewhere, were injurious not only to the community, but to the very party they were designed to benefit. The manufacturer, lulled by the false security of what seemed a sure demand, overruled his profits. Acting on this miscalculation, he gave the workmen almost any sum they pleased to ask, when it was necessary to secure a lucrative contract; in fact, he was paying wages out of his capital. Nor was

this system so profitable to the workmen as some of the witnesses have represented. If the nominal rate of wages was higher in L., employment was more steady in Yorkshire; and it is not improbable that at the end of a year the total earnings of the English operative would have been the larger sum. There can be no doubt," Mr. Otway continues, "that considerable benefit resulted from the substitution of large capitalists for the smaller manufacturers, so numerous previous to 1810—a change which took place about the year 1812. Trade is now in a healthy and progressive condition, especially as the advancement of steam-navigation has opened new markets for Irish woollen goods in the S and W of England."

*Silk manufacture.*] The silk manufacture of L. was introduced

by the French refugees, and established in the liberties of the city of Dublin, at the close of the 17th cent. A small number of the silk weavers are employed in the manufacture of velvets and ribbons, and all the remainder in the manufacture of tabinetts or poplins and tabareas—the latter article shot with linen yarn; and the former with worsted. The total of silk weavers in Dublin, in May 1858, was 400.

*Commerce.*] The following tables will fully illustrate the recent history, the comparative extent, the increase or the decrease, and all the great outlines of Irish commerce.

### I. Annual average official value of the Imports and Exports of Ireland, during the period stated:—

Periods.	Imports into Ireland, from			Exports from Ireland, to		
	Great Britain.	Foreign parts.	Total.	Great Britain.	Foreign parts.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Three years ended 25th March 1790,	2,429,176	1,106,412	3,535,588	3,112,817	1,012,516	4,125,333
... .. 1800,	3,441,101	858,392	4,299,493	3,487,865	528,111	4,015,976
... .. 5th January 1810,	5,160,924	1,374,144	6,535,068	4,710,713	559,758	5,270,471
... .. 1820,	4,988,668	1,019,605	6,008,273	5,544,135	747,140	6,291,275
... .. 1826,	6,102,975	1,388,915	7,491,890	7,751,907	708,011	8,454,918
... .. 1830,	...	1,573,545	...	...	839,014	...
Two years ended 5th January 1832,	...	1,491,086	...	...	635,909	...
... .. 1834,	...	1,386,045	...	...	410,715	...
Three years ended 5th January 1840,	...	1,518,061	...	...	359,486	...
... .. 1844,	...	1,656,390	...	...	358,612	...
Years ended 5th January 1845,	...	1,893,767	...	...	267,977	...
... .. 1846,	...	1,951,349	...	...	273,421	...
... .. 1847,	...	2,896,179	...	...	251,652	...
... .. 1848,	...	8,034,895	...	...	287,672	...
... .. 1849,	...	4,297,978	...	...	294,813	...
... .. 1850,	...	...	...	...	...	...
... .. 1851,	...	...	...	...	...	...

The trade with Great Britain since 1825 being governed by coasting regulations, there are no official documents recording the interchange of goods between the two countries, except in so far as the article corn is concerned, the statistics of which are given in another paragraph of this article.

### II.—IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE OF IRELAND.

Imports and Exports.		1801.	1805.	1809.	1813.	1817.	1821.	1825.
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Official value of imports into Ireland,	(From Great Britain,	3,270,350	4,067,717	5,316,557	6,746,353	4,722,766	5,338,838	7,048,936
	From foreign parts,	1,350,994	1,227,350	1,580,264	1,050,932	923,797	1,068,589	1,547,849
	(From all parts,	4,621,344	5,294,967	6,896,821	7,797,286	5,646,563	6,407,427	8,596,785
Official value of exports from Ireland of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom,	(To Great Britain,	3,352,069	4,201,077	4,367,425	5,164,482	5,569,464	7,067,252	8,404,288
	To foreign parts,	426,076	469,569	625,415	1,132,781	877,959	637,818	697,667
	(To all parts,	2,778,145	4,670,647	4,992,840	6,297,264	6,447,424	7,705,070	9,101,956
Official value of foreign and colonial merchandise,	(To Great Britain,	185,656	87,090	220,880	245,843	127,149	50,199	127,067
	To foreign parts,	100,743	44,430	84,596	157,149	23,413	27,605	14,187
	(To all parts,	286,399	131,521	305,476	402,993	150,562	77,804	141,254
Total exports from Ireland,	(To Great Britain,	2,537,725	4,288,167	4,588,305	5,410,326	5,696,613	7,117,452	8,531,355
	To foreign parts,	526,819	514,000	710,012	1,289,930	901,372	665,423	711,854
	(To all parts,	4,064,545	4,802,168	5,298,317	6,700,257	6,597,986	7,782,875	9,243,210
Real and declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported from Ireland,	(To Great Britain,	The real value of the exports was not recorded in these years.		9,260,782	11,228,401	9,114,427	8,974,509	(Not ascertained this year. 793,615
	To foreign parts,			1,321,615	2,467,824	1,411,897	832,134	
	(To all parts,			10,582,398	13,696,225	10,526,325	9,806,644	

No general account of the trade between I. and Great Britain can be rendered for the period subsequent to 1825, the commercial intercourse between the two countries having, from the termination of that year, been assimilated by law to a coasting traffic. An approximative estimate may however be made of the increase of this trade by the subjoined tables of shipping and navigation.

### III.—Annual average number and tonnage of vessels entered inwards in the ports of Ireland, in the triennial periods ending 5th Jan. 1790, 1800, 1810, 1820, 1830, 1834, 1840, and 1844; and in each of the years ending 5th Jan. 1845, 1846, 1847, 1848, and 1849; distinguishing the trade with Great Britain from the trade with foreign parts.

Periods.	From Great Britain.		From foreign parts.		From all parts.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
Three years ended 5th Jan. 1790,	The entries inwards from Great Britain and foreign parts are not distinguished in the customs' records of this period.				7,243	622,013
... .. 1800,					7,209	642,477
... .. 1810,*	7,744	674,425	653	90,233	8,397	764,658

\* This is an average for two years only, viz., 1808 and 1809.

## IRELAND.

278

## IRELAND.

Three years ended 5th Jan.	1820,	10,018	823,307	937	138,577	10,955	961,884
...	1830,	12,329	1,158,937	1,008	166,142	13,337	1,325,079
...	1834,	14,245	1,348,999	944	174,292	15,189	1,523,291
...	1840,	16,468	1,630,111	1,007	186,500	17,475	1,816,611
...	1844,	17,071	1,710,080	991	189,038	18,062	1,899,118
Years ended 5th Jan.	1845,	17,714	1,861,621	1,071	207,441	18,785	2,069,062
...	1846,	19,081	2,046,202	1,239	274,780	20,320	2,320,982
...	1847,	20,335	2,277,744	1,618	341,909	21,953	2,619,653
...	1848,	17,511	2,000,008	3,262	633,355	20,773	2,633,363
...	1849,	18,996	2,176,053	1,944	394,351	20,940	2,570,404

## IV. Number and Tonnage of Vessels registered in the ports of Ireland in 1842 and 1848:

## I. SAILING VESSELS.

PORTS.	1842.		1848.		1842.		1848.	
	Under 50 tons.	Vessels.	Under 50 tons.	Vessels.	Of 50 tons and upwards.	Vessels.	Of 50 tons and upwards.	Vessels.
Baltimore,	103 =	2,688 tons.	108 =	2,566 tons.	5 =	641 tons.	7 =	950 tons.
Belfast,	109	4,217	172	5,949	255	45,280	297	64,830
Coleraine,	11	238	12	256	2	628	2	629
Cork,	145	3,471	138	3,395	219	30,853	258	43,058
Drogheda,	6	153	7	193	34	3,573	39	4,670
Dublin,	246	7,249	293	9,824	95	15,075	130	21,044
Dundalk,	6	195	8	267	9	751	19	2,040
Galway,	9	172	6	119	12	2,716	14	3,775
Limerick,	48	1,170	46	1,275	68	13,572	61	12,659
Londonderry,	6	160	12	313	20	5,963	23	6,515
New Ross,	3	91	2	69	11	1,980	25	10,339
Newry,	163	5,148	149	4,566	45	5,474	57	7,166
Sligo,	10	247	9	214	27	4,116	22	3,957
Strangford,	...	...	1	37	...	...	4	981
Tralee,	...	...	6	168	...	...	2	546
Waterford,	53	1,328	78	1,944	114	17,900	123	22,300
Westport,	4	60	4	89	...	...	1	120
Wexford,	41	1,518	32	1,188	66	6,794	74	6,990
Total,	964	28,105	1,083	32,492	982	155,316	1,158	212,569

## II. STEAMERS.

Baltimore,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belfast,	...	...	2 =	8 tons.	6 =	1,017 tons.	4 =	749 tons.
Coleraine,	...	...	...	...	1	185	...	...
Cork,	1 =	47 tons.	5	184	2	170	15	4,092
Drogheda,	...	...	1	25	5	1,124	5	1,560
Dublin,	2	80	4	161	45	10,960	43	11,310
Dundalk,	...	...	...	...	2	439	3	1,024
Galway,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Limerick,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Londonderry,	...	...	...	...	8	2,663	7	1,186
Newry,	...	...	...	...	1	203	1	203
Ross,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sligo,	...	...	1	44	4	999	...	...
Strangford,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tralee,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Waterford,	...	...	...	...	4	999	14	3,187
Westport,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Wexford,	...	...	...	...	2	416	1	228
Total,	3	127	13	442	76	18,176	93	24,239

## V. Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Sailing vessels and Steam-vessels that entered and cleared out coastwise at each of the ports in Ireland in 1848 and 1850:—

Ports.	I. SAILING VESSELS. 1848.		II. STEAMERS.		* SAILING VESSELS. 1850.	
	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.
Ballina,	118 =	7,452 tons.	42 =	2,534 tons.	42 =	2,644 tons.
Baltimore,	317	13,720	205	9,724	250	10,953
Belfast,	3,766	240,175	889	50,382	3,635	242,027
Coleraine,	217	14,928	83	3,375	188	9,746
Cork,	2,603	212,874	1,752	110,665	1,945	148,728
Drogheda,	720	55,486	286	22,064	550	42,422
Dublin,	4,796	423,156	2,003	198,671	4,978	407,377
Dundalk,	597	37,468	279	18,081	496	31,768
Galway,	154	18,142	30	3,116	103	9,795
Limerick,	532	58,354	572	58,737	334	33,383
Londonderry,	620	53,849	337	23,357	599	11,847
Newry,	873	50,043	389	21,608	824	48,447
Ross,	360	27,879	105	6,952	219	19,977
Sligo,	196	16,031	135	9,045	171	11,556
Strangford,	90	4,278	62	2,344	461	20,519
Tralee,	243	13,778	175	12,046	204	10,038
Waterford,	1,031	91,267	776	60,302	785	66,595
Westport,	108	7,503	72	5,770	70	5,160
Wexford,	592	53,456	457	25,149	549	28,281
Total,	17,933	1,379,839	8,649	643,922	16,403	1,191,243



II. STEAM VESSELS. 1848.				STEAM VESSELS. 1850.			
Ports.	Inwards.	Outwards.		Inwards.	Outwards.		
	2 = 310 tons.	2 = 310 tons.		3 = 201 tons.	3 = 201 tons.		
Ballina, . . .	...	...		...	...		
Baltimore, . .	898	252,704	896	251,627	1,232	344,403	1,222
Belfast, . . .	169	24,897	175	33,076	284	70,050	185
Coleraine, . .	280	112,529	286	116,593	355	140,905	356
Cork, . . . .	240	86,708	314	108,578	210	81,857	226
Drogheda, . .	881	236,389	895	239,129	1,070	337,956	1,358
Dublin, . . .	127	52,796	127	52,683	104	43,836	105
Dundalk, . . .	...	...	...	...	2	340	2
Galway, . . .	298	80,773	299	81,849	391	102,652	388
Londonderry, .	146	39,741	145	39,593	183	47,230	179
Newry, . . . .	67	18,731	80	19,812	67	23,027	70
Sligo, . . . .	147	43,399	146	43,143	389	99,632	389
Waterford, . .	54	12,216	54	12,216	50	11,400	51
Wexford, . . .							
Total, . . . .	3,309	961,193	3,419	998,609	4,340	1,303,489	4,534
							1,338,732

The British and Irish tonnage which entered inwards from British colonies in 1848 was 463 vessels = 138,596 tons; and in 1850, 318 = 90,012 tons. In 1848, 362 vessels = 101,868 tons cleared outwards to the colonies; and in 1850, 248 = 68,626 tons. In 1848, 879 British and Irish vessels = 145,598 tons, and 601 foreign vessels = 109,857 tons, entered inwards from foreign places; and 455 British and Irish vessels = 129,972 tons, and 431 foreign vessels = 76,993 tons, cleared outwards to foreign ports. In 1850, 1,016 British and Irish vessels = 155,000 tons, and 871 foreign vessels = 160,288 tons, entered inwards from foreign ports; and 433 British and Irish vessels = 96,497 tons, and 704 foreign vessels = 130,588 tons, cleared outwards to foreign ports.

*Customs.]* \*The customs are collected in 15 ports. The net receipts of duties in 1848 amounted to £2,888,980, and the charges for collection to £225,296, or £9 16s. 2d. per cent. The expense of revenue-cruisers amounted to £21,702; for harbour vessels, £1,098; and that of the Coast guard to £106,724. The civil department of the revenue cost £95,770.

VI. An Account of the amount of the gross produce of duties of customs of the districts of Ireland (excluding casual and miscellaneous receipts), in each of the years ended the 5th day of January, 1847 and 1849:

Ports of Ireland.	Years ended 5th January, 1847.	1849.
Dublin, . . . .	£1,054,675	£978,511
Baltimore or Skibbereen, . .	734	819
Belfast, . . . .	363,289	341,114
Coleraine, . . . .	4,857	6,341
Cork, . . . . .	318,007	286,113
Drogheda, . . . .	16,733	17,515
Dundalk, . . . .	40,629	44,393
Galway, . . . . .	40,878	35,075
Limerick, . . . .	218,806	201,855
Londonderry, . . .	125,270	104,991
Newry, including Strangford, .	41,417	39,202
Ross, . . . . .	14,291	31,282
Sligo, including Ballina, . . .	35,285	30,591
Trillick, . . . . .	694	759
Waterford, . . . .	178,786	134,897
Westport, . . . .	17,823	14,173
Wexford, . . . . .	13,525	17,564
Total, . . . . .	2,485,699	2,285,195

*Banks.]* In 1783, the Bank of Ireland commenced operation with a capital of £600,000 Irish currency; from 1784 till 1799, its dividend was from 5 to 6 per cent.; in 1800, its capital was £1,500,000, and its dividend 7 per cent.; in 1809, its capital was £2,500,000, and its dividend up to 1814 was  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; in 1821, a bonus of £500,000 was added to the original capital; from 1821 to 1829, the dividend was 10 per cent.; and from 1829 to 1835, the dividend was 9 per cent. The number of private

banks existing in 1820 was 22. In 1821, joint-stock banks were legalized in Ireland; and, in 1844, the number of private banks was 4, and that of joint-stock banks 12.

*Fisheries.]* From the Shannon to Malin-head, the waters of the coast of I. abound with fish; but the fishermen, except at Galway, are for the most part holders of small patches of land, and possess only rude, occasional, and inefficient means of prosecuting fishing. From Malin-head to Belfast-lough, the fishermen are more regularly employed, and find a ready sale for their produce either at home or in the markets of Glasgow and Liverpool. From Belfast-lough to Carlingford-lough, the trade of fishing, except for herrings, is regularly followed at only two or three places. From Carlingford to Wexford, fish are alleged to be scarce; and from Dublin to Wexford, little fishing is carried on for the supply of the Dublin market. It is confidently asserted that a diminution of the fisheries in this great district amounts to three-fourths of the quantity taken at a period not many years distant. At Waterford, the fishing resource has long been believed to be abundant; and the famous Nymph bank is asserted to yield white fish in inexhaustible quantity. From Waterford, round the entire S coast, and N to the Shannon, a recent decline in the productiveness of the fisheries is matter of constant local complaint; but this scarcity seems to exist only in the bay and in-shore fisheries. "Exclusively of the edible fish, properly so called," say the Commissioners of the Irish Fishery inquiry, in October 1836, "I. possesses oyster banks which yield valuable returns, where properly fished; and the lobster fishery would form a most lucrative branch of industry—but it is not efficiently worked. The sunfish and whale are met with in the Irish seas; the former, only a few years since, visited the NW coast annually, in considerable numbers." Up to 1830, the establishment of boats and men upon the coast of I. was returned by the local inspectors at 13,119 vessels of all sorts, which employed 64,771 persons in the various departments of fishing, curing, packing, &c. The second report of the Irish Commissioners of Fisheries, dated June 11, 1844, states that "present returns show a gross establishment of 15,935 vessels of all descriptions, the aggregate of whose crews amounts to 73,979." In 1848, 15,932 vessels, manned by 70,011 men and boys, of all descriptions, were in the sea-fisheries on the coast of I.

*Canals.]* The Grand canal sends off a main branch to communicate with the navigation of the Barrow at Athy; sends off six other branches which, together with this main one, have an aggregate extent of 65 $\frac{1}{2}$  m.; passes through Philipstown and Tullamore to the river Shannon, at Shannon harbour, 79 $\frac{1}{2}$  m. from Dublin; communicates there with all the extensive and ramified navigation of the Shannon from Lough Allen to the ocean; and finally proceeds 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  m. to Ballinasloe, there probably to communicate at some future period with a long projected system of inland navigations through the lakes of Connought to

the sea at Westport and Killacla. The total tonnage in the traffic on this canal in 1822 was 134,939; in 1837, 215,910; and in 1848, 339,629 tons; and the amount of tolls in these years was respectively £24,866, £40,859, and £22,795. In 1830, the effect of the introduction of steam-power on the Shannon, and the communication which this established between Limerick and Liverpool, began to be felt on the Grand canal, and mainly contributed to the increase of its traffic.—From Carrick-on-Shannon past Athlone, Portumna, Killacloe, Limerick, and other places, to the sea, the river Shannon, or rather its chain of lakes, has for years past been partially navigated over a distance of about 150 m. by steam-vessels either carrying goods and passengers or acting as steam-tugs. The total tonnage carried by the boats of the Inland Navigation company on the Shannon in 1826, was 2,004 tons; in 1836, 47,289 tons; and in 1848, 52,071 tons.—The Royal canal, begun in 1789, runs very near the Grand canal for 52 m., or to Mullingar; proceeds thence NW by Ballymahon and Killacloe; sends off a branch of 5 m. from the latter place to Longford; and joins the Shannon at Richmond harbour, 92 m. from Dublin. In 1834, the total receipts and expenditure connected with this canal were respectively £24,000 and £11,376; in 1836, £25,148 and £11,912; in 1843, £24,122 and £11,389. The goods conveyed on this canal to and from Dublin in 1842, amounted to 73,688 tons; in 1848 to 109,802 tons. The navigation of the Barrow from the S end of the main branch of the Grand canal at Athy has been effected by the construction of 17 locks, and the formation of a horse trackway; and it forms a line of communication along the rich though narrow limestone valley of Carlow, with Bagnalstown, St. Mullins, New Ross, the Suir navigation was 19,928 tons, and the amount of tolls was £1,465; in 1835, the tonnage was 66,084 tons, the amount of tolls £4,966; and in 1846, the tonnage was 86,750 tons, the tolls £6,494.—The navigation of the Suir takes very large sea-borne vessels up to the city of Waterford; but forms a very imperfect navigation for barges thence to Clonmel, the boatmen having great difficulty in forcing the barges through its numerous shallows and rapids. The Boyne navigation carries large sea-borne vessels up to Drogheda, and is thence aided artificially 19 m. to Navan. In 1837, the amount of tolls was £775; in 1846, £579. The tonnage upwards in 1837 was 6,603 tons; in 1846, 6,227 tons. The tonnage downwards in 1837 was 5,323 tons; in 1846, 3,025 tons.—The Newry navigation is 21 m. in length, and connects Lough Neagh with the town of Newry and the head of Lough Carlingford. In 1837, its tonnage amounted to 102,332 tons, and its tolls to £5,505.—The Tyrone navigation connects the collieries at Coal Island near Dungannon, with the river Blackwater and Lough Neagh; it was constructed under grossly mistaken impressions of the value of the Tyrone coal-field. In 1836, its tonnage amounted to 7,291 tons, only 718 of which were coals. In 1846 it carried 10,370 tons of exports, and 6,830 tons of imports.—The Lagan navigation connects Belfast with Lough Neagh; and, including the river, the lake, and the Tyrone navigation, or from Belfast to Coal Island, it extends 61 m. In 1836, the tonnage of this navigation was 44,700 tons, and the tolls amounted to £2,060 10s. 8d.—A very important work, the Ulster canal, was recently constructed to connect the Blackwater and Lough Neagh with Lough Erne, and to bring Beltrubet, Belleek, and all the country lying around and between them, into water-communication with Belfast and Newry. "The total tonnage carried by all the canals and navigable rivers," said the Railway commissioners, in 1838, "may be taken at about 600,000 tons; and the amount of tolls at £71,242, if the tolls, on an average, be taken at 1d. per ton per mile. The average distance which the above tonnage is carried is about 30 m."

On the subject of internal communication in Ireland, the 'Times Commissioner' made the following remarks in 1845: "After the rapidity with which you are whirled about in England from one end of the island to the other, nothing can be more tedious than travelling in I. That tediousness, too, is augmented by the fact, that, except on the great lines of road, there are few public conveyances. Off the great lines of road coaches are unknown, and the cars of Bianconi are the only public vehicles; between many places you do not even find these."

**Railways.]** From 1826 to 1849 the legislature passed 69 acts, authorizing the companies interested therein to raise share capital to the amount of £20,538,575, and loans £6,901,636, for the construction of about 1,775 miles of railway in Ireland. The existing Irish railway interest comprises 31 companies, with powers to raise on shares £19,094,675, and to borrow £5,758,643; total, £24,853,318. The amount raised by these companies to the 30th of June, 1849, was, on shares, £7,726,930; on loans, £1,599,957; together, £9,326,887. The length of railway that the 31 companies are authorized to construct is 1,517½ m., 475½ m. of which are now open for traffic; 172½ m. with a single, and 303 m. with a double line of rails. Excluding the Midland Great Western, 172½ m. of the length open may be considered as N, and 252 m. S of Dublin. The cities of Dublin, Cork, and Limerick are now connected by the great trunk line of the country; and with the construction of an additional 36 m. of railway, and the viaduct across the Boyne, the communication between Dublin and Belfast will be likewise complete. The length in course of construction is 183 m.; the remaining 859½ m. have not been commenced, and a large proportion of this mileage is not likely ever to be proceeded with. The railway traffic of the country, from its commencement with the opening of the Dublin and Kingstown railway, is exhibited in the following table:

Years ending 30th June.	Miles open on 1st Jan. in each year.	Passengers. Number.	Total Receipts.	Aver per mile.
1836 (15 months),	6	1,237,800	£35,421	£5,903
1837,	6	1,184,428	31,945	5,322
1838,	6	1,243,972	33,588	5,598
1839,	6	1,341,208	34,716	5,786
1840,	13½	1,358,761	36,590	2,710
1841,	13½	1,629,024	41,468	3,071
1842,	13½	2,046,908	56,739	4,202
1843,	31½	2,074,444	63,350	2,027
1844,	31½	2,588,096	71,494	2,287
1845,	65	3,481,707	119,398	1,836
1846,	65	3,610,506	123,743	1,903
1847,	120½	3,866,294	184,581	1,528
1848,	209½	4,874,749	271,808	1,299
1849,	361½	5,061,543	380,842	1,053

The gauge is 5 ft. 3 in., and is compulsory, notwithstanding that the Commissioners of Irish railways had previously resolved that 6 ft. 2 in. should be the national gauge of Ireland. The Ulster railway was the only line constructed of the latter gauge, and this has since been altered to that of 5 ft. 3 in.; and the only diversity now existing is the 4 ft. 8½ in. of the Dublin and Kingstown, which will be extended so as to complete the uniformity, when the works forming its junction with the Waterford, Wexford, Wicklow, and Dublin railway line are finished.

**Territorial divisions.]** The most ancient recorded division of I. is alleged to have consisted of Leath Conn in the N, and Leath Mogha in the S, and to have been formed, in Milesian times, by an imaginary line drawn from the bay of Dublin to the bay of Galway. The map of Ptolemy is the most ancient geographical document of I.; and, considering the period in which he lived, and the maps and descriptions he gave of countries which were then better known, it is singularly distinguished by correctness of topographical delineation. The districts inhabited by various tribes, as exhibited in this map, are determined as follows by Whittaker: "1. CENTRAL, comprising the counties of Tyrone, Fermanagh, Monaghan, Cavan, Leitrim, Longford, Westmeath, King's county, Queen's county, Kilkenny, and Tipperary, inhabited by the *Scoti*, bounded by the Shannon, Lough Allen, and Lough Erne on the west, the rivers Barrow and Boyne, and Lough Neagh, on the east, the rivers Suir and Blackwater on the south, and a chain of mountains on the north. 2. NORTH, or the counties of Antrim and Londonderry, peopled by the *Robogdii*, whose boundary was from Horn-head to Fair-head. 3. EAST, or the county of Antrim and part of Down, inhabited by the *Damnii*, from Fair-head to Ardglass; part of Down and the counties of Armagh and Louth by the *Voluntii*, from Ardglass to the river Boyne; the county of Meath and part of Dublin by the *Eblani*, from the Boyne to the Liffey; parts of Dublin and of Wicklow by the *Caucii*, from the Liffey to the Ovoca; parts of Wicklow and Wexford by the *Menapii*, from the Ovoca to Carnsore Point; parts of Wicklow and the counties of Kildare and Carlow by the *Coriundi*, between the Boyne and Barrow rivers. 4. SOUTH, or part of Wexford and the county of Waterford, by the *Brigantes*, from Carnsore Point to the Blackwater; part of Cork by the *Vodii*, from the Blackwater to the Bann; parts of Cork and Kerry, by the *Iberni*, from the Bann to Dingle bay. 5. WEST, or part of Kerry, by the *Luceni*; parts of Kerry and Limerick by the *Vela-borri*; Clare by the *Cangani*; Galway by the *Auterii*; Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, Leitrim, and Fermanagh, by the *Magnatae*; and Donegal by the *Hardinii*, from the Ballyshannon river to Horn-head."

After the introduction of Christianity, I. was subdivided into very numerous petty toparchies and principalities, nearly all of fluctuating extent, and some of comparatively brief existence. Toward the close of the purely Hibernian period, it comprised the five kingdoms of Leinster in the SE, Munster in the SW, Connaught on the W, Ulster on the N, and Meath in the centre, but at the same time

formed one general or supreme monarchy. After the Anglo-Norman conquest, it was for a brief period fitfully subdivided among English magnates and Irish chiefs, and then formally and progressively divided into counties, yet, for a series of generations, existed practically in the two divisions of English and Irish, or of 'Ireland within the Pale,' and 'Ireland beyond the Pale.'—Its present political divisions consist first of 4 provinces; next of 32 counties; next of 313 baronies, and a number of municipal jurisdictions; next of a number of parishes which may be stated at 2,348; and next of ultimate subdivisions called townlands in most districts, and ploughlands in some, but the total number of which cannot be stated till the completion, now at hand, of the Ordnance survey.—The division into provinces has long ceased to be of any practical utility, except as an aid to topographical knowledge. The counties in Ulster are Donegal, Londonderry, Tyrone, Antrim, Down, Armagh, Monaghan, Fermanagh, and Cavan; those in Leinster are Louth, Dublin, Wicklow, Wexford, Meath, Kildare, Carlow, Kilkenny, Longford, Westmeath, King's county, and Queen's county; those in Munster are Waterford, Tipperary, Limerick, Cork, Kerry, and Clare; and those in Connaught are Galway, Mayo, Roscommon, Leitrim, and Sligo. Each of the counties of Cork, Tipperary, and Galway, was recently divided into two ridings. The baronial divisions are used principally in regulating grand jury assessments and other civil matters; the parochial divisions, principally in regulating tithe compositions and other ecclesiastical matters; and the townland divisions, principally in regulating the affairs of estates and other comparatively domestic matters.

The judicial division of the kingdom comprises six circuits:—1. The Home, comprehending the counties of Meath, Westmeath, King's, Queen's, Carlow, and Kildare; 2. The North-East, comprehending the counties of Louth, Down, Antrim, Armagh, and Monaghan, and the towns of Drogheda and Carrickfergus; 3. The North-West, comprehending the counties of Longford, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Donegal, and Londonderry, and the city of Londonderry; 4. The Leinster, comprehending the counties of Wicklow, Wexford, Waterford, Kilkenny, and Tipperary, and the city of Kilkenny; 5. The Munster, comprehending the counties of Clare, Limerick, Kerry, and Cork, and the cities of Limerick and Cork; 6. The Connaught, comprehending the counties of Roscommon, Leitrim, Sligo, Mayo, and Galway, and the town of Galway.—The military divisions are, for the recruiting service, Newry, Dublin, and Cork; and for the general service, Belfast, Dublin, Cork, Limerick, and Athlone.—The fiscal divisions are 16 ports for the customs, 21 districts or collections for the excise, and the 32 counties for stamps.—The ecclesiastical divisions will be stated in the section on Religion.

*Public revenue.* It appears that at the period of the union, in 1801, the total amount of the Irish debt was £27,792,975, of which £15,315,000 was funded in England, and £12,477,975 in I. The total amount of Irish debt created between 1801 and 1816 was £106,809,794, of which £26,270,855 was paid off, leaving a net increase of unredeemed debt amounting to £80,538,939. Adding this amount to the previous debt, and making some allowances and deductions, the result is that the actual amount of the funded debt of I., on 1st of February, 1817, was £120,561,037. On January 5, 1817, the treasuries of Ireland and Great Britain were mutually consolidated; and since that date, full separate views of the public financial condition of I. cannot be obtained.—The following table exhibits a summary

view of the revenue and expenditure for several previous years:

PERMANENT REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.	
	Gross produce.	Net payment.	1792.	£1,514,258
1791.	£1,805,964	£1,184,684	1800.	7,301,231
1800.	3,445,718	2,805,536	1805.	8,043,764
1806.	4,193,915	3,364,137	1810.	9,343,476
1815.	6,937,558	5,625,699	1815.	13,326,433

The total amount of Irish debt created between 1817 and 1829 was £1,065,462; and the amount of debt paid off, £6,238,520. The amount of the unredeemed debt funded in I. on the 5th of Jan. 1850, was £41,499,296, being a large apparent increase since 1817, but caused by the voluntary acts of stockholders transferring their stock from England, and totally distinct from additions created by loans raised for the public service. The loans of £8,000,000 and £2,000,000 (by 11th and 12th Victoria, chap. 125, 1848), although virtually raised for the service of I., do not appear in the public accounts under that head. It further appears that the total income of I., between 1817 and 1848 varied from £4,319,127 to £5,797,238, and the total charge or expenditure during the same period, from £6,990,167 to £13,736,029 in 1847. The amount advanced from the English exchequer to make good the deficiency has varied from £2,767,704 to £9,380,628 in 1847. In 1848 it amounted to £3,809,489. The following table exhibits the total public revenue and expenditure of I. in the years ending 5th Jan. 1844 and 1849:

I.—INCOME.	1844.	1849.
Moneys remaining in the exchequer at the commencement of the year,	£530,170 0 11½	£334,453 7 11½
Net payments into the exchequer of the following several duties or revenues, viz. :—		
Customs,	1,960,497 19 4	2,069,772 16 11
Excise,	1,082,721 17 6	1,321,914 19 9
Stamps,	521,981 0 1	532,924 8 6
Postage,	3,000 0 0	39,000 0 0
Crown lands,	—	—
Poundage fee, Pells fee, Treasury fees, Hospital fees, and Casualties,	5,058 18 8	4,835 1 6
Total ordinary revenue,	4,103,429 16 6½	4,802,900 14 7½
Other receipts :—		
Repayment of money advanced for public works and other public objects,	384,793 12 4	304,927 9 0
Moneys repaid by public accountants, and other miscellaneous payments,	1,676 18 10	2,000 16 9
Total income,	4,489,900 7 8½	5,109,829 0 4½

II.—EXPENDITURE.									
Dividend interest, and management of public funded debt, payable in L.,									
	1,211,313	18	3	1,391,586	14	7			
Other payments out of the Consolidated fund,									
	561,328	15	3½	949,957	12	4			
Total payments out of the Consolidated fund,									
	1,772,642	13	6½	2,341,544	6	11			
Payments on account of grants of parliament, viz.:									
Army,	994,500	0	0	625,000	0	0			
Navy,									
Ordnance,	84,870	0	0	31,400	0	0			
Miscellaneous,	332,682	14	3	554,216	13	9			
Other payments:—									
Money advanced out of the Consolidated fund for public objects,									
	350,804	3	9½	695,738	9	7			
Total expenditure,									
	3,553,499	11	7	4,247,999	10	3			
Application of the ways and means provided:—									
Applied to the redemption of exchequer bills, per Act 57 Geo. III., c. 48,									
	250,000	0	0	—					



Sums remitted through the Excise in L. to the exchequer in England,	68,592 19 0	46,557 16 4
	3,854,092 10 7	4,294,457 6 7
Money remaining in the exchequer at end of year,	695,807 17 1½	815,371 13 9½
Total,	4,489,900 7 8½	5,109,829 0 4½

*Post-office.*] The postage revenue is under a secretary, who corresponds with the head office in London. There are 750 post-offices, including sub-offices and receiving-houses, where letters are collected and transmitted to the nearest post-office. The gross annual income during 16 years was as follows. The penny postage commenced on the 10th of Jan. 1840, when the franking system was abolished.

1833 . . . £232,071	1841 . . . £129,918
1834 . . . 240,472	1842 . . . 132,430
1835 . . . 245,665	1843 . . . 136,768
1836 . . . 255,080	1844 . . . 144,682
1837 . . . 261,297	1845 . . . 158,312
1838 . . . 254,435	1846 . . . 173,354
1839 . . . 255,380	1847 . . . 205,426
1840 . . . 101,386	1848 . . . 197,231

*Local taxation.*] The local taxation derived from the property of the country, and applied to the construction and repairs of roads, bridges, &c., the erection and repairs of public buildings, the maintenance of the police, prisons, and bridewells, the salaries of public officers, the public charities, and other minor charges, is levied by Grand Jury presentments at the spring and summer assizes. The total annual amount from 1827 to 1848 was, in

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
1827 . . .	£804,836	1838 . . .	£1,138,865
1828 . . .	885,655	1839 . . .	1,215,540
1829 . . .	895,415	1840 . . .	1,269,880
1830 . . .	879,775	1841 . . .	1,240,602
1831 . . .	887,861	1842 . . .	1,191,684
1832 . . .	945,489	1843 . . .	1,151,110
1833 . . .	981,486	1844 . . .	1,129,432
1834 . . .	1,009,126	1845 . . .	1,149,923
1835 . . .	936,137	1846 . . .	1,180,287
1836 . . .	1,037,969	1847 . . .	1,175,474
1837 . . .	1,023,964	1848 . . .	1,241,854

*Government.*] The constitution of L., as to both its principles and by far the greater part of its materials, is identical with that of England, consisting of a legislative vested in king, lords, and commons, and an executive vested solely in the Crown; and it differs almost solely in having the supreme executive deputed from the crown to a lord-lieutenant, and the subordinate executive committed to a separate or distinct staff of officers. The parliament, previous to the legislative union, was also distinct; and, besides materially differing in some great features from that of England, it materially differed at successive epochs from itself; but as to all its intrinsic character, and even very nearly all its influence upon the present condition of the country, it is now the proper subject, not of statistic statement, but of history. The chief governor bore at former and successive periods the titles of justiciary, warden, lord-justice, and lord-lieutenant; and at one time he possessed so very high powers that he could appoint a lord-deputy to his office,—could convoke, prorogue, and dissolve parliaments at will,—could pass laws, in the style of royalty, without consulting the sovereign or his English ministers,—could control all the military authorities within L.,—and could summon at pleasure all the king's subjects to attend him in his public progress of either state or military operation. The lord-lieutenant now holds office during pleasure; but—except when a change occurs in the ministry and councils of the sovereign—he is generally continued during 5 years. The extraordinary powers which he formerly exercised have been gradually withdrawn, and he is now little more than the organ for execut-

ing the ordinances of the British cabinet. He still, however, maintains an establishment of regal character, for the support of which he receives a fixed annual salary of £20,000, two splendid residences, and several minor emoluments. He is aided in the discharge of his official duties by a privy-council, composed of all the great judicial functionaries, and other noblemen and gentlemen nominated by the Crown. During his absence, or on his demise, his place is filled by lords-justices, who are generally the lord-chancellor, the archbishop of Dublin, and the commander of the forces. But the government of the country is in reality exercised by the lord-lieutenant's chief secretary, who is usually a member of the cabinet, and has an establishment of under-secretaries and clerks, in London and Dublin, to execute the details of his office.—The charge of each co. is given to a lord-lieutenant, aided by a number of deputy-lieutenants. Their recommendation has much weight in the appointment of the county-magistracy, though the actual nomination of magistrates is vested in the lord-chancellor, who has also the power of superseding them.—Latterly, a class of paid magistrates, called stipendiaries, has been established, appointed ostensibly to aid the other class, but who in reality perform the greater part of the executive duties, and are looked to by the government as more especially responsible for the preservation of the public peace. Their orders are carried into execution by a constabulary of between 12,000 and 13,000 men, classed in three divisions of head-constables, constables, and sub-constables. Cities and corporate towns have an executive of their own nomination, varying in name and powers according to the special provisions of their respective charters. The following is a list of the titles and salaries of the principal officers of the government:

The lord-lieutenant, . . . . .	£22,091
His private secretary, . . . . .	829
State-steward, . . . . .	505
Comptroller of household, . . . . .	413
Chief secretary, . . . . .	5,500
His secretary, . . . . .	369
Under secretary, . . . . .	1,789
Chief, senior, and junior clerks, . . . . .	6,516
Lord-chancellor, . . . . .	8,000
Lord-chancellor's secretary, . . . . .	2,000
Commander of the forces, . . . . .	1,387
Military secretary, . . . . .	553
Adjutant-general, . . . . .	347
Inspector-general of constabulary, . . . . .	1,500
Two deputy inspectors-general, each . . . . .	1,200
Inspector-general of coast-guard, . . . . .	1,000
Inspector-in-chief of revenue-pollce, . . . . .	1,000
Paymaster of civil services, . . . . .	1,000
Secretary to the post-office, . . . . .	1,200

*Courts and officers of justice.*] The Irish system of judicature closely resembles that of England; and in its grand features of court of chancery, court of queen's bench, court of exchequer, and circuit court of justiciary, was established by King John. The court of chancery is the highest court of judicature in L.; it is a court both of law and of equity; it holds pleas of various matters after the method of common law, and issues all original writs, commissions of bankruptcy, lunacy, &c.; and, as a court of equity, it moderates the rigours of the common law, and entertains cases in which the plaintiff is incapable, from such causes as having lost his bond, to obtain relief at common law. The court of chancery has also a general jurisdiction over matters beyond those in which inferior tribunals cannot adjudicate; it gives relief for and against infants, notwithstanding their minority; it adjudges the interests of married women, notwithstanding their coverture; it obliges executors to give security and pay interest for money which has been long in their possession; and it redresses frauds of all descriptions which cannot be remedied at common law.

The lord-chancellor takes precedence of all peers except the primate; yet within the city of Dublin he must give precedence also to the lord-mayor. The master-of-the-rolls assists the lord-chancellor, and wields judicial powers subordinate to his; and he holds his office during good behaviour, while the lord-chancellor holds during pleasure. The court of queen's bench is the supreme court of common law. A chief justice and three puisne judges preside in this court, and are the sovereign conservators of the peace, and the supreme coroners of the land. This court has very extensive powers; it takes cognizance of both criminal and civil causes; it superintends all civil corporations; and it can reverse erroneous judgments of magistrates, and inflict punishment on both them and their officers for abuses of their authority.—The court of common pleas is presided in by a chief justice and three puisne judges, and holds pleas of all civil causes at common law between subject and subject, in actions real, personal, and mixed, but it has no cognizance of pleas of the Crown.—The court of exchequer is presided in by a chief baron and three barons; it was originally intended to order the revenues of the Crown, but now consists of two divisions, the first of which manages the revenue, while the other is a court of record and of common law. Courts of assize for criminal and civil pleas are held twice a-year in each county, by two of the judges of the superior courts; courts of quarter-sessions are held four times a-year by the assistant-barrister of each county; and courts of petty-sessions are held often and in many places by the county magistrates.—The great courts which sit in Dublin, additional to those of chancery, queen's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, are the prerogative court, for the trial of ecclesiastical causes; the court of admiralty, for offences and suits of debt and damage on the high seas; the court of bankruptcy, which is held by commissioners appointed by the lord-lieutenant; and the court of insolvents. This court, constituted in 1821, for the relief of insolvent debtors, is presided over by two commissioners, who, besides their fixed court in Dublin, make circuits through the several counties, one commissioner visiting those in the northern provinces, and the other those in the southern. They are appointed by the lord-lieutenant.—Every county is divided into two districts, in each of which general sessions of the peace are held four times in the year by the resident magistrates.

*Crime.*] The state of crime during the years 1826—1842, as exhibited in the annual returns of the inspectors-general of prisons, was as follows:—

Years.	Charged.	Convicted.	Proportion of convictions to pop.
1826	16,318	8,716	1 in 832
1827	18,031	10,207	1 in 735
1828	14,683	9,269	1 in 809
1829	15,271	9,449	1 in 815
1830	15,794	9,902	1 in 777
1831	16,192	9,605	1 in 802
1832	16,056	9,759	1 in 799
1833	17,819	11,444	1 in 699
1834	21,381	14,253	1 in 561
1835	21,205	15,216	1 in 526
1836	23,891	18,110	1 in 442
1837	14,804	9,536	1 in 839
1838	15,723	9,609	1 in 882
1839	26,392	12,049	1 in 666
1840	23,833	11,194	1 in 715
1841	20,796	9,287	1 in 880
1842	21,186	9,874	1 in 828

The following table shows the number of convictions and acquittals for seven years, from 1843 to 1849, with the rate per cent. of each of the whole number of offences:—

Years.	Convicted.	Acquitted.	Rate per cent.
1843	8,639	11,506	46.6
1844	8,042	11,406	41.35
1845	7,101	9,595	42.53

1846	8,639	9,853	46.72	53.28
1847	15,233	15,976	48.61	51.39
1848	18,206	20,316	47.26	52.74
1849	21,202	20,787	50.49	49.5

Considered as to the classes of crime, in these seven years, the following were the results:—

Class.	Convicted.	Acquitted.
1. Offences against person,	3518	6432
2. Offences against property, with violence,	4336	5664
3. Offences against property, without violence,	6298	3702
4. Malicious offences against property,	4483	5517
5. Forgery, and offences against the currency,	5166	4834
6. Miscellaneous offences,	3167	6833

The number of cases brought forward at petty sessions for these seven years was—

1843	18,848	1847	25,810
1844	18,877	1848	49,717
1845	17,512	1849	63,586
1846	16,695		

Number of committals for murder during eight years:—

1842	189	1846	98
1843	101	1847	117
1844	129	1848	195
1845	92	1849	170

Of the 170 committed for murder, in 1849, 138 were acquitted on trial.

*Representation.*] In 1793, no fewer than 200 of the 300 members of the Irish house-of-commons were asserted by Mr. Grattan to be the nominees of private individuals; and from 40 to 50 were understood to be each returned by a constituency of not more than 10 electors. The Irish parliament, just before the legislative union, abolished 83 nomination boroughs, and voted £1,245,000 of compensation to their owners or 'patrons,' as compensation for disfranchisement; the act of union reduced the number of representatives in the house-of-commons to 100; and the reform bill, in the reign of William IV., added 5 to this number. The present temporal peers of Ireland, 204 in number, send 28 of their number to represent them for life in the house-of-lords; the bishops send 4 of their number in rotation to represent them in the house-of-lords; and the constituencies of the counties, the university, and the boroughs, send respectively 64, 2, and 39 members to represent them in the house-of-commons. The total number of parliamentary electors, of all descriptions of qualification, registered for counties, cities, and boroughs, in I., to 1st Feb. 1835, was 102,871; to 1st Feb. 1843, 109,945; to 1st Feb. 1847, 126,221; in 1848 the number was only 85,272; and in 1849 had sunk to 72,216. The following is an analysis of the constituency of 1848:—

£50 freeholders,	10,532
£20 freeholders,	3,712
£10 freeholders,	23,291
£20 leaseholders,	1,322
£10 leaseholders,	4,409
Rentchargers,	896
County electors,	44,162
£50 freeholders,	1,161
£20 freeholders,	465
£10 freeholders,	206
£2 freeholders,	344
£20 leaseholders,	843
£10 leaseholders,	1,399
£2 leaseholders,	14,655
Rentchargers,	38
Freemen,	8,477
City and county-of-town electors,	27,498
Freeholders,	225
£10 householders,	12,294
£5 householders,	175
Freemen,	240
	13,602

*Education.*] "The following table," say the Commissioners of the census of 1841, "will show the proportions to the pop. 5 years old and upwards, of the number of ignorant, together with some other inter-

esting comparisons The counties are arranged according to the order of their education:—

Counties and towns.	Per cent. of the population who can neither read nor write, 5 years old and up.	Per cent. of the population from 5 to 15 attending schools.	Ratio which the numbers of persons ministering to education bear to the population, between 5 and 15 years of age.
Carrickfergus,	13.24	28	1 to .91
Belfast town,	21.13	28.1	1 — 74
Antrim,	23.82	21.6	1 — 126
Dublin city,	25.16	25.8	1 — 46
Down,	27.46	24.5	1 — 136
Londonderry,	29.36	25.1	1 — 125
Dublin,	34.93	32	1 — 55
Cork city,	35.62	58.5	1 — 62
Waterford city,	36.28	27.9	1 — 54
Carlow,	38.02	33.5	1 — 98
Kilkenny city,	40.67	31.3	1 — 70
Wicklow,	41.26	31.3	1 — 97
Wexford,	41.26	30.8	1 — 98
Queen's,	41.62	22	1 — 117
Kildare,	41.93	26	1 — 111
Limerick city,	42.13	43.1	1 — 67
Armagh,	42.82	17.2	1 — 168
Tyrone,	45.03	16.9	1 — 165
Drogheda town,	45.41	25.2	1 — 94
Fermanagh,	45.79	16.2	1 — 146
King's,	47.88	21	1 — 112
Tipperary,	51.01	22.5	1 — 131
Longford,	51.22	16.6	1 — 162
Kilkenny,	51.24	27.2	1 — 125
Monaghan,	51.31	13.5	1 — 174
Cavan,	51.47	15.7	1 — 169
Westmeath,	52.10	20.7	1 — 140
Galway town,	54.37	55.4	1 — 74
Meath,	54.52	19.1	1 — 135
Limerick,	55.32	27.9	1 — 153
Leitrim,	57.28	13	1 — 176
Louth,	61.07	19.1	1 — 140
Donegal,	61.66	15	1 — 192
Clare,	63.07	17.9	1 — 172
Roscommon,	64.99	13.6	1 — 193
Cork,	65.58	23.2	1 — 137
Sligo,	68.71	14	1 — 164
Kerry,	70.44	17	1 — 171
Waterford,	70.55	25.5	1 — 147
Galway,	77.48	11.7	1 — 224
Mayo,	79.01	8.3	1 — 257

In 1834, the number of daily schools of all kinds in I. was 9,537. Of these, 8,886 made returns of their attendance, and 771 made no returns; 5,653 were supported wholly by fees, and 4,004 were supported wholly or partially by endowment or subscription. The 8,886 which made returns had on their books 353,809 males, 223,900 females, and 5,700 children whose sex was not specified; and 771 which made no returns were computed to be attended by 50,886 children. Of the 4,004 which were supported wholly or partially by endowment or subscription, 892 were in connection with the National Board, 203 with the Association for Discountenancing Vice, 115 with the Board of Erasmus Smith, 235 with the Kildare Place society, and 618 with the London Hibernian society. In 1839, the schools under the National Board had increased to 1,581, and the number of scholars to 205,000. At the close of 1848 the Board had 4,109 schools in operation, attended by 507,469 children. At the close of 1849, the number of schools in operation was 4,321, and of pupils on the rolls, 480,623, showing a total increase in schools in operation of 212; and a decrease in the attendance for 1849, as compared with 1848, of 26,846 children. But the increase in the attendance, during 1848, amounting to 104,837, might be ascribed, in a considerable degree, to the fact of food having been distributed, by the British Relief association, to the children attending a large number of the National schools. The amount of salaries paid to national teachers for 1849, was £60,396. In 1831, the present system of national education for the poorer classes was established in I. The principle of this board is, and has been from the beginning, that the

national schools shall be open alike to Christians of all denominations; that no child shall be required to be present at any religious instruction or exercise of which his parents or guardians may disapprove; but that opportunities shall be afforded to all children to receive separately, at particular periods, such religious instruction as their parents or guardians may provide for them.

*Colleges, &c.* The colleges for theology, science, and literature, and the schools of medicine and surgery in I., are Trinity college, Dublin, incorporated in 1591, and opened for students in 1593; the college of St. Columba, in co. Meath, opened on Aug. 1, 1843, in strict connection with the United church of England and Ireland; the Royal college of St. Patrick, at Maynooth, instituted by act of parliament, in 1795, for the education of Roman Catholics; St. Patrick's college at Carlow, St. Jarlath's college at Tuam, and St. Patrick's college at Armagh, for the education of Roman Catholics; the Roman Catholic college at Dublin for Foreign missions; the Royal Belfast Academical institution, practically for the education of Protestant Dissenting ministers; the Belfast academy, instituted in 1786; the King and Queen's college of Physicians in Ireland, founded by charter of Charles II.; the School of Physic in Ireland; the Association of Graduates in Medicine of Trinity college, Dublin, instituted in 1837; the Association of Members of the King and Queen's college of Physicians in Ireland, instituted in 1816; the Royal college of Surgeons in Ireland; the School of Surgery; the Dublin Obstetrical society, established in 1838; the Theatre of Anatomy and School of Medicine and Surgery, in Peter-street, Dublin; the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland; the School of Medicine of the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland; the Society of Apothecaries, established in 1835; and the Medical Association of Ireland, established in 1839. In addition to the above institutions government has recently founded and endowed three colleges at Cork, Galway, and Belfast, with a principal, and 10 or 12 professors in each, all nominated by the Crown, for the diffusion of sound and liberal education throughout the community without interference in matters affecting freedom of conscience.—The principal literary and scientific institutions have their seat in Dublin, and are the Royal Dublin society, the Royal Irish academy, the Royal Hibernian academy, the Royal Irish Art union, the Royal Zoological society, the Geological society, the Dublin Natural History society, the Civil Engineers' society of Ireland, the Royal institute of architects, the Dublin Mechanics' institution, the Royal Agricultural society, the Royal Horticultural society, and the Practical Floral and Horticultural society.—About 100 local farming societies exist throughout Ireland, in connection with the Royal Agricultural society.—The number of newspapers published in I. in 1800 was 25; in 1830, 66; in 1841, 81; in 1848, 96, of which 26 were in Dublin, and 70 provincial. The number of stamps issued for newspapers for a series of years from 1827 to 1848, both inclusive, shows an increase of circulation of nearly double the amount at its commencement:

Years.	Stamps.	Years.	Stamps.
1827,	3,545,846	1838,	5,312,222
1828,	3,790,272	1839,	5,782,857
1829,	3,553,550	1840,	6,057,195
1830,	4,035,314	1841,	5,990,033
1831,	4,261,430	1842,	6,081,780
1832,	4,458,990	1843,	6,350,647
1833,	4,332,572	1844,	6,769,067
1834,	4,084,442	1845,	7,015,477
1835,	4,290,896	1846,	6,960,462
1836,	4,286,438	1847,	6,574,607
1837,	5,262,211	1848,	7,028,956

Total, 46,301,901

Total, 69,923,913



*Religion.*] The established church of Ireland is Protestant Episcopalian, closely modelled upon the Anglican, and so intimately connected with it that the two are often styled 'the United church of England and Ireland.' The original episcopacy of I. comprised a very large though unascertained number of bishoprics; it afterwards became, for many centuries, reduced to 32; and it eventually suffered a consolidation of these 32, first into 22, and next into 12. All the 32 dioceses still continue distinct in statistics; all have a separate constitution and separate officers; and the names of all are as fully retained in topography as if each had still its own bishop. Four of the thirty-two, down to the period of the last and recent consolidation, were archbishoprics,—Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam; and the occupants of them were entitled respectively 'the Primate and Metropolitan of Ireland,' 'the Primate and Metropolitan of Munster,' and 'the Primate and Metropolitan of Connaught.' The 10 unions of sees which reduced the number of bishops to 22, and for a long period limited the hierarchy to that number, were Connor with Down, Ardagh with Tuam, Leighlin with Ferns, Emly with Cashel, Lismore with Waterford, Ross with Cork, Ardferth with Limerick, Kilfenora with Killaloe, Kilmacduagh with Clonfert, and Achonry with Killalla. The Church Temporalities act of 1833 reduced the archbishoprics of Cashel and Armagh to the rank of bishoprics; remodelled the arrangement of several amounts of episcopal revenue; and ordained the consolidation of all the sees of Ireland, under 2 archbishops and 10 bishops. The 12 principal sees, under this act, together with the see or sees united to each, are—in the province of Armagh—Armagh with Clogher, Meath without any annexation, Derry with Raphoe, Down with Connor and Dromore, Kilmore with Ardagh and Elphin, and Tuam with Killalla and Achonry; and—in the province of Dublin—Dublin with Kildare, Ossory with Leighlin and Ferns, Cashel with Emly, Waterford, and Lismore, Cloyne with Cork and Ross, Killaloe with Kilfenora, Clonfert, and Kilmacduagh, and Limerick with Ardferth. The only dioceses which the new arrangement did not affect as to their extent or annexation, were Meath unannexed and Limerick united to Ardferth. The order of precedence is the archb. of Armagh, the archb. of Dublin, the bishop of Meath, the bishop of Kildare, and the other bishops according to the date of their consecration. The episcopal income is derived principally from lands let upon lease of 21 years, and renewed from time to time at the originally small rent upon payment of fines of fluctuating amount. On an average of three years ending in December, 1851, it amounted to £151,127 gross, and £128,808 net; but, under the new arrangement, it is reduced to £82,953,—leaving a balance of £68,175 to be managed by a Board of commissioners for the general purposes of ecclesiastical discipline and education. The income of the 12 bishops under the new arrangement effected by the Church Temporalities Act is as follows: Armagh, £13,170; Meath, £4,621; Derry, £6,033; Down, £5,896; Kilmore, £7,478; Tuam, £5,020; Dublin, £9,321; Leighlin, £6,550; Cashel, £5,354; Cloyne, £4,009; Killaloe, £3,932; Limerick, £5,369.—The parochial clergy are, for the most part, maintained by tithes, and in many instances also by glebe lands; but in a few of the larger towns they are maintained by a house-tax called 'Ministers' money.' By the act 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>d</sup> Victoria, c. 109, compositions for tithe were abolished, and fixed payments or rent-charges substituted for them, consisting of three-fourths of their amount, to be paid by the landlord or others having a perpetual interest in the lands.

*Roman Catholics.*] The Roman Catholic hierarchy consists of the archbishops of Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam, and the bishops of Ardagh, Clogher, Derry, Down and Connor, Dromore, Kilmore, Meath, and Raphoe, suffragan to Armagh,—Ferns, Ossory, and Kildare and Leighlin, suffragan to Dublin,—Kerry, Cloyne and Ross, Cork, Killaloe, Limerick, and Waterford and Lismore, suffragan to Cashel,—Achonry, Clonfert, Killalla, and Galway, suffragan to Tuam,—and Kilmacduagh and Kilfenora, suffragan alternately to Tuam and to Cashel. "On the death of a bishop, the clergy of the dio. elect a vicar capitular, who exercises spiritual jurisdiction during the vacancy. They also nominate one of their own body, or sometimes a stranger, as successor to the vacancy, in whose favour they postulate or petition the pope. The bishops of the province also present the names of two or three eligible persons to the pope. The new bishop is generally chosen from among this latter number; but the appointment virtually rests with the cardinals, who constitute the congregation *de propaganda fide*. The emoluments of a bishop arise from his parish—which is generally the best in the diocese—from licenses, and from the *cathedraticum*. Licenses are dispensations from the publication of banns in cases of marriage. They vary in amount from 5s. to £1. The *cathedraticum* is an annual sum, varying from £2 to £10, according to the value of the parish, paid by the incumbent in aid of the maintenance of the episcopal dignity. Every diocese has a dean, appointed by the cardinal in Rome, also an archdeacon appointed by the bishop. The incumbents of parishes are appointed solely by the bishop. The income of the parochial clergy arises from various sources, all voluntary. The Easter and Christmas dues consist of a certain sum paid by the head of every family in consideration of the spiritual instructions given to it. In country parishes it is generally 1s. at each festival, but is always expected to increase in proportion to the pecuniary circumstances of the parishioner. Marriage fees are another source of income. They are generally fixed at 10s. 6d., but increase in proportion to the circumstances of the parties. The fee for baptisms is 2s. 6d. Masses are paid for at rates from 2s. upwards. The customary stipend of a curate is the third part of the general receipts of the parish.—Monasteries and convents are numerous. Many of these institutions derive considerable funds from voluntary donations." In 1841, the number of parochial Roman Catholic clergy was 2,145.

*Presbyterians.*] The Presbyterians of I. are very numerous in most parts of Ulster, but bulk very inconsiderably in each of the other three provinces, particularly in Connaught. A session, consisting of minister and elders, governs each congregation; a presbytery governs each cluster of congregations, and forms a court-of-appeal from the sessions; and a general assembly or a synod, consisting of the minister or ministers, and an elder of every congregation, governs the whole body, and forms a court-of-appeal from the presbyteries. The ministers are appointed by the vote of the majority; and are supported partly by *regium donum* and partly by salary from the proceeds of seat-rents and voluntary contributions. The *regium donum* or royal gift was originally a grant, made by Charles II. in 1672, of £600 a-year of "secret service money," to be distributed in equal portions among the Presbyterian ministers. It has, at various periods, undergone augmentation, till it now amounts to £32,000.

The following is a summary view of the ecclesiastical statistics of all I., according to returns obtained in 1834:—Members of the Established church,

852,064; Roman Catholics 6,427,712; Presbyterians, 642,356; other Protestant dissenters, 21,808; total, 7,943,940. Proportion per centum to the total pop. of members of Established church, 10,700; Roman Catholics, 80,918; Presbyterians, 8,188; other Protestant dissenters, 278. Number of places of worship belonging to Episcopalians, 1,534; to Roman Catholics, 2,105; to Presbyterians, 452; to other Protestant dissenters, 404; total, 4,494. Parishes or districts with provision for the cure of souls, 2,348; without provision for the cure of souls, 57; total, 2,405. Number of benefices in which there is no member of the Established church, 41; in which there are not more than 20, 99; in which there are not more than 50, 124; in which there are not more than 100, 160.

*Population.* The pop. of I. was estimated, in 1695, at 1,034,102; in 1712, at 2,099,094; in 1726, at 2,309,106; in 1731, at 2,010,221; in 1754, at 2,372,634; in 1767, at 2,544,276; in 1777, at 2,690,556; in 1785, at 2,845,932; in 1788, at 4,040,000; and in 1805, at 5,395,456. The first census was taken in 1813, but was so imperfect as not to be officially published; the second census, taken in 1821, was very superior in character to the former, yet considerably defective; and the third census, taken in 1831, was much denounced for inaccuracy, and was practically revised by the Commissioners of Public Instruction in 1834. The following was the pop. of the four provinces in 1821 and 1831, according to the censuses of these years:

PROVINCES.	1821.	1831.	Increase per cent.
Leinster, . . .	1,757,492	1,909,713	9
Munster, . . .	1,935,612	2,227,152	14
Ulster, . . .	1,998,494	2,286,622	14
Connaught, . .	1,110,229	1,343,914	22
Total, . . .	6,801,827	7,767,401	14½

The following was the population in 1841:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Leinster, . . .	963,747	1,009,984	1,973,731
Munster, . . .	1,186,190	1,209,971	2,396,161
Ulster, . . .	1,161,797	1,224,576	2,386,373
Connaught, . .	707,842	711,017	1,418,859
Total, . . .	4,019,576	4,155,548	8,175,124

The following table exhibits the comparative density of pop., as compared both with the arable surface and the total area, in different counties, exclusive of towns containing 2,000 persons and upwards, in 1841, distinguishing the cultivated lands from the general area:—

	Arable land. Sq. m.	No. to the sq. m. of arable land.	Total area. Total area.	No. to the sq. m. of entire area.
<b>LEINSTER.</b>				
Carlow, . . .	287-59	251	344-91	209
Dublin, . . .	306-35	371	345-15	330
Kildare, . . .	557-48	187	653-04	159
Kilkenny, . .	734-54	236	794-04	218
King's, . . .	526-96	247	770-44	169
Longford, . .	299-72	361	420-38	257
Louth, . . .	279-65	345	313-6	308
Meath, . . .	555-3	201	905-37	190
Queen's, . . .	535-04	259	662-09	210
Westmeath, . .	570-65	230	707-56	185
Wexford, . . .	797-97	217	897-18	193
Wicklow, . . .	438-11	269	781-	151
Total, . . .	6,189-36	247	7,594-76	202
<b>MUNSTER.</b>				
Clare, . . .	710-95	377	1,292-6	207
Cork, . . .	2,045-14	334	2,874-72	238
Kerry, . . .	647-83	416	1,852-06	145
Limerick, . . .	823-24	363	1,059-5	259
Tipperary, . .	1,318-57	276	1,655-27	220
Waterford, . .	508-35	293	718-79	207
Total, . . .	6,054-08	332	9,452-94	212

## ULSTER.

Antrim, . . .	786-39	326	1,161-36	221
Carrickfergus, .	19-5	282	25-89	212
Armagh, . . .	414-44	511	511-4	414
Cavan, . . .	586-68	400	745-09	315
Donegal, . . .	614-36	472	1,864-01	156
Down, . . .	803-41	403	953-57	339
Fermanagh, . .	451-92	334	714-04	211
Londonderry, . .	497-31	397	807-87	245
Monaghan, . . .	446-7	428	499-14	383
Tyrone, . . .	6703-57	424	1,253-27	237
Total, . . .	5,324-28	406	8,541-64	253

## CONNAUGHT.

Galway, . . .	1,160-63	348	2,444-61	165
Lettertrim, . .	389-61	398	613-07	253
Mayo, . . .	777-48	475	2,129-74	173
Roscommon, . .	688-32	354	948-32	237
Sligo, . . .	454-21	367	720-77	231
Total, . . .	3,470-25	386	6,856-51	195
General total, 21,037-97	355	32,445-85	217	

The following is a comparative abstract of the census in 1841 and 1851:

	1841.	1851.
Houses:—Inhabited, . . .	1,328,839	1,047,735
— Uninhabited, built, . . .	52,208	65,169
— building, . . .	3,313	2,113
Total, . . .	1,384,360	1,115,007
Families, . . .	1,472,287	1,207,002
Persons:—Males, . . .	4,019,576	3,176,727
— Females, . . .	4,155,548	3,339,067
Total, . . .	8,175,124	6,515,794
Population in 1841, . . .	8,175,124	
— 1851, . . .	6,515,794	
Decrease, . . .	1,659,330	

The pop. of I. in 1851 might have been expected to have exceeded that in 1841 by at least 1,000,000; instead of that it is less by 1,500,000. And even 286,033 souls fewer in 1851 than in 1821; and while in 1841 the average size of a family was 5-5636, in 1851 it was only 5-3983; in other words 100 families contained on an average 16 persons less in 1851 than in 1841. In this reduction Connaught and Munster have borne the largest share, the decrease in the former prov. being 28 per cent., and the latter 23; while in Leinster and Ulster the decrease is pretty equal, being about 16 per cent. in each. It may not be uninteresting to state briefly the fluctuations in the number of the pop. for the last 40 years. In the first decade it increased from 5,637,856 to 6,801,827, a rapid ratio of 35 per cent.; in the second the increase was 14 per cent.; in the third, 5 per cent.; and now, at the close of the fourth decade, by a reduction of 20 per cent.; whereas, if instead of decreasing, the pop., according to its natural tendencies, had increased only in the low ratio of 5 per cent., it would now be upwards of 2,000,000 more than it is. Dublin is the only co. which shows an increase of about 10 per cent. With this solitary exception the decrease extends to all the cos., and varies from 9 per cent. in Antrim to 31 per cent. in Roscommon. It will be observed that the per centage is lowest in Antrim, Wexford, Down, and Londonderry, and highest in Galway, Mayo, and Roscommon. The towns all exhibit an increase, varying from 3 to 43 per cent. on the 10 years. In Dublin we find the pop. is now 254,850, showing an increase of 9 per cent. In Cork the increase is 7 per cent.; in Belfast 32 per cent.; and Galway has nearly doubled its inhabitants, being now 43 per cent. more than in 1841.

## ABSTRACTS OF THE CENSUS OF IRELAND IN 1841 AND 1851.

Provinces, Counties, and Towns.	1841 (7th June).			1851 (31st March).			Decrease per cent. between 1841 and 1851
	Houses.	Families.	Total.	Houses.	Families.	Total.	
LEINSTER.							
Carlow, . . . . .	14,562	15,210	86,228	11,884	12,542	68,157	20
Drogheda town, . .	3,429	3,566	16,261	3,358	3,634	16,876	...
Dublin city, . . .	21,771	49,511	232,726	25,023	57,622	254,850	...
Dublin, . . . . .	23,689	26,765	140,047	26,333	29,285	147,506	...
Kildare, . . . . .	19,388	20,338	114,488	16,867	17,488	96,627	15
Kilkenny city, . .	3,357	3,931	19,071	2,998	3,777	20,283	...
Kilkenny, . . . . .	29,981	30,874	183,349	24,945	24,999	139,934	23
King's, . . . . .	25,584	26,683	146,857	20,128	21,125	112,875	23
Longford, . . . . .	19,859	20,579	115,491	14,679	15,311	83,198	28
Louth, . . . . .	20,811	21,029	111,979	17,911	17,821	91,045	18
Meath, . . . . .	31,760	32,737	183,828	25,290	25,678	139,706	24
Queen's, . . . . .	26,408	27,442	153,930	20,486	20,937	109,747	28
Westmeath, . . . .	24,803	25,693	141,300	19,565	21,221	107,510	23
Wexford, . . . . .	34,718	36,594	202,033	31,448	33,315	180,170	10
Wicklow, . . . . .	19,931	21,182	126,143	16,607	17,236	99,287	21
Total, . . . . .	320,051	362,134	1,973,731	277,522	321,991	1,167,771	15.5-10
MUNSTER.							
Clare, . . . . .	46,099	48,981	236,394	33,259	36,686	212,720	25
City of Cork, . . .	10,113	16,499	80,720	10,498	18,230	86,485	...
Cork, . . . . .	125,360	133,295	773,398	91,097	96,370	551,152	28
Kerry, . . . . .	48,231	51,593	293,880	35,385	37,776	238,241	19
City of Limerick, . .	5,866	9,686	48,391	6,480	9,966	55,268	...
Limerick, . . . . .	43,942	46,652	281,638	32,406	35,068	201,619	28
Tipperary, . . . . .	68,650	74,570	435,553	51,871	57,210	323,829	25
City of Waterford, .	3,150	5,347	23,216	4,103	5,552	26,667	...
Waterford,* . . . .	26,254	28,531	172,971	21,627	23,391	135,836	21
Total, . . . . .	377,665	415,154	2,396,161	285,726	320,250	1,831,817	23.5-10
ULSTER.							
Antrim, . . . . .	50,595	50,910	276,188	46,694	47,274	250,355	9
Armagh, . . . . .	43,576	43,175	232,393	37,406	37,409	196,420	15
Belfast, . . . . .	12,875	15,172	75,308	15,100	20,553	99,660	...
Carrickfergus town, .	1,681	1,865	9,379	1,619	1,688	8,488	...
Cavan, . . . . .	42,883	42,592	243,158	31,612	32,388	174,303	28
Donegal, . . . . .	53,503	53,899	296,448	46,799	46,679	254,288	14
Down, . . . . .	68,890	68,153	361,446	62,363	62,471	317,778	12
Fermanagh, . . . . .	27,844	28,654	156,481	21,393	22,127	115,378	25
Londonderry, . . . .	41,044	41,114	222,174	35,610	35,869	191,744	13
Monaghan, . . . . .	36,485	36,934	200,442	27,346	27,557	143,410	28
Tyrone, . . . . .	57,891	57,337	312,956	47,157	47,016	251,865	19
Total, . . . . .	436,767	439,805	2,386,373	373,159	380,731	2,004,289	16
CONNAUGHT.							
Galway town, . . . .	2,504	3,713	17,375	2,791	4,132	24,697	...
Galway, . . . . .	72,890	74,655	422,923	51,526	54,466	298,129	29
Leitrim, . . . . .	26,649	27,192	155,297	19,787	20,172	111,808	28
Mayo, . . . . .	70,527	70,910	388,887	49,191	49,860	274,716	29
Roscommon, . . . . .	45,068	46,387	253,591	31,033	31,989	173,798	31
Sligo, . . . . .	32,239	32,837	180,886	23,272	23,411	128,769	28
Total, . . . . .	249,877	255,694	1,418,859	177,600	184,030	1,011,917	28.6-10
General total, . . . .	1,384,360	1,472,787	8,175,124	1,115,007	1,207,002	6,515,794	20

"A considerable proportion of the deficiency officially reported in the Irish pop. is attributable to the scarcity of food,—to the sufferings of the poor from the want of fuel and shelter during inclement seasons,—and to the scourge of the cholera, diarrhoea, influenza, and other epidemic and endemic diseases, which have been carrying on their destructive operation in that country with unusual force during the last 10 years. The principal cause of deficiency, however, will not be found in these evils, but in the progress of emigration, affecting the pop. throughout the whole of the term under consideration, and during the last two or three years, as every one knows, at a rapidly increasing ratio. During the last ten

years the emigration from the United Kingdom has amounted to above 1,600,000, of which amount, as is well known, I. has furnished more than its natural proportion, sending out numbers by whose departure the country has been in some parts completely drained of its pop. It should also be observed, that the emigrants from I. generally are not the aged nor the very young, but persons whose removal would in a few years sensibly affect the natural increase of the pop. by the increase of births over deaths. The necessary consequence has been, that great numbers of those births which would have been registered in I. have been registered in the United States or the colonies, and many of them in this country. If any



attempts should be made hereafter to show how the movement of the pop. from one country has affected the numbers in another, the fact referred to will be found of great importance; and it may be proper that it should now be noticed, as illustrating another fact connected with the increase of the pop. of England during the last ten years. After making allowance for causes unfavourably affecting the English pop., it appears that the natural increase in this country is not sufficient to account for the numbers we have reached, and that amount would not, we apprehend, be fully accounted for by the numbers of immigrants from I. Our numbers, it will be found, have been augmented by a considerable quantity of Irish children, who have had the misfortune, or the good fortune, to be born out of their own country. The same element will be found to apply very largely to the United States, and to have its influence on the vast increase which they have received during the last ten years." [Times.]

*House accommodation.*] It would appear from the numbers above given that a considerable diminution has taken place in the number of houses likewise in I. The total number of houses in the years 1821, 1831, 1841, and 1851 was as follows:

1821.	1831.	1841.	1851.
1,142,602	1,249,816	1,328,839	1,115,007

*ISLANDS.*] The coast islands belonging to I. lie for the most part so near the shore, that they might, with a very few exceptions, be placed within a general view of the prevailing coast-line from point to point of the mainland; and in a considerable aggregate of instances, they are separated from one another and from the mainland by such narrow and sinuous channels, as occasions them and adjoining peninsulæ to be intricately blended in series of alternations. Those of the N, the E, and the SE are few and generally small; and those of the SW and the W usually abound in number and expand in area nearly in the proportion of the indentedness and brokenness of the adjacent coasts of the mainland. The inhabited islands of Ulster amount to 27, with a pop. of about 5,000; those of Leinster to 2, with a pop. of about 50; those of Munster to 50, with a pop. of about 23,000; and those of Connaught to 60, with a pop. of about 16,000. The principal uninhabited islands of Ulster amount to 13; of Leinster, to 4; of Munster, to 20; and of Connaught, to about 20.

*History.*] The Irish are nowise deficient in that species of national pride which delights in the supposition of an existence from the most remote antiquity. In their claims of this kind they have even surpassed the inhabitants of the other parts of the British dominions. I, if we may believe some of her native writers, was a great and flourishing kingdom when the whole continent of Europe was either a continued forest, or peopled by tribes not surpassing in civilization the Indians of North America. By what melancholy reverses of fortune this flourishing state of society was overturned in I, we are not informed; but certain it is that when the light of undoubted historic truth first begins to dawn on this island, we find its inhabitants involved in a barbarity fully as rude as that of their British or Gaulish neighbours. That the Celts either passed of their own accord, or were driven by the Goths into I, there is no reason to doubt; but it is not clear at what period this event happened. The first authentic glimpse we obtain of Irish history is furnished by Tacitus, who informs us that an Irish prince who had been expelled from his native country solicited Agricola to invade Ireland, assuring him that a single legion of Roman soldiers would accomplish its subjugation. There is good evidence that I, from the 4th to the 10th cent., was known under the appellation of *Scotia*, and that its inhabitants were called Scots. It has been supposed that Christianity was introduced into this country so early as the 4th cent. In the 6th cent. there appears to have been scarcely any vestiges of it; but soon after this period it sent forth such a number of holy men to propagate the Christian religion, that it was dignified with the title of *Insula Sanctorum*, or 'the Island of Saints.' According to Bede, in the year 634, many Anglo-Saxons settled in Ireland.

I seems, in the earliest period of its history, to have been divided among several independent chieftains or princes, who frequently assumed, but could never support, the title of king of Ireland. Under each of the chief princes were several subordinate chieftains or lords, who occasionally disputed the authority

of their feudatory superior.—In 684 I. was invaded by order of Egfred, king of Northumberland, and its lands, churches, and monasteries were laid waste. This invasion was followed by another and still more destructive one, in the beginning of the 9th cent., when the Norwegians and Danes landed on the coast. For a period of three centuries from this event, the Irish annals are filled with details of the wars between the natives and *Ostmen*, as these invaders were called. The invasions which a body of these Ostmen, who had established themselves in Ireland, committed upon Wales, furnished Henry II. of England with a pretext, in a political point of view, for attempting the conquest of I. To justify it in a religious light, he represented to the pope that the interests of Christian piety and knowledge required that I. should be made a province of England. The pontiff, pleased that he could be generous at so small expense, bestowed on Henry a full right to the country in question. Dermot, king of Leinster, justly expelled by a confederacy of the southern chiefs of I, fled to Henry, at that time in France, to whom he represented himself as an injured prince, driven by lawless usurpation from his country, and promised, that should Henry restore him, he would swear fealty to him for his whole territories. Henry, not having it in his power to proceed in person on the expedition, recommended the cause of the Irish prince to his barons; and three noblemen, Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, undertook to replace Dermot, on condition of being rewarded with the possession of a portion of those lands which they were to conquer. After several changes of fortune, peace was concluded with O'Connor, the leader of the confederacy against Dermot; the latter agreed to consider himself as his vassal, and the Englishmen were settled in different parts of the country, and rewarded for their services with considerable possessions. Dermot's submission, however, was only pretended; as soon as Strongbow arrived with a considerable re-enforcement, Dermot showed that he no longer accounted himself the vassal of O'Connor. A powerful confederacy was once more formed against him; but, though the Irish fought with much courage, Strongbow at length completely defeated them, and made himself master of a great part of the country. Henry now foresaw that should the earl make himself absolute in a great part of I, he might forget his duty as an English vassal. He collected a small force, and hastened to do that which he was afraid Strongbow might have done before him. With an army of 4,400 men, he embarked at Milford, and in 1172 landed at Waterford. He affirmed that he came not to subdue the country by force of arms, but to take possession of that which was undoubtedly his by the gift of the pope; and many of the chieftains, either convinced that Henry's pretensions were just, or—what is more probable—despairing successfully to repel a force which they accounted formidable, submitted without resistance. O'Connor, unwilling to give up his kingdom without a struggle, but unable to contend with the forces brought against him, retired to the banks of the Shannon, and secured himself in the fastnesses of that region. In the meantime Henry proceeded to treat that part of the country which had submitted as in every respect his own; he endeavoured to introduce English laws, and divided the best part of the lands among his nobles, appointing Strongbow to be governor in his absence. The necessary departure of the king was the signal for the commencement of new disorders. Fitz-Andelm, who had succeeded Strongbow in the government of I, by his imprudent administration threw every thing into confusion. De Lacy, who was appointed to supersede him, might have restored tranquillity, but John, the youngest son of the English king, being appointed lord of I, by his weak and puerile conduct, soon induced the natives to revolt against the English power. This revolt, with considerable difficulty, was quelled by De Courcy.

*Richard I. to James.]* During the reign of Richard I, who spent so much of his time in the East, the affairs of I attracted little attention. The weak reign of Henry III. encouraged the licentiousness of the English barons, both at home and in I. This prince, however, extended the Magna Charta to this portion of his dominions. While Edward I. swayed the English sceptre, his vigour might have been able to restore the long lost tranquillity of I, had not his wars with France, and his desire of enslaving Scotland, prevented him from bestowing much of his attention on this part of his territories. When the Scots, under Bruce, had recovered their liberty, and had even impressed on the English a considerable terror of their arms, they endeavoured to wrest I from their rivals. The Irish, exasperated by the oppression of their English masters, gladly received the offer of Scottish aid; and, on Bruce's brother, Edward, invading Ireland with 6,000 men, in 1315, he was joined by many of the natives. At first Bruce was successful, but, in 1318, he was defeated and killed at Dundalk. The attempt to conquer France—an undertaking which long was a favourite with the monarchs of England—prevented them from giving that attention to I which they might otherwise have bestowed upon it; and, during the civil wars, the Irish lived in a state of the most abject slavery, under the lawless sway of barons, who sought only their own aggrandizement, and who, amid the commotions of England, dreaded not to be called to any account for their conduct. The vigour of Henry VII. which restored tranquillity to England, likewise reduced I. to a state of complete dependence on his power, by restraining the authority of the barons, forbidding the governor to assemble parliaments without express permission, and ordaining that no law passed in I. should be binding without the concurrence of the English king and his council. The

caprice of Henry VIII, though he terrified his English subjects into a servile compliance with his imperious mandates, was ill-calculated to maintain that tranquillity in I. which his predecessor had established. His religious innovations disgusted all ranks; and, during his reign, as well as during those of his successors, Edward VI. and Mary, the Irish gradually relapsed into that state of barbarous confusion by which they had so long been distinguished. The Spaniards endeavoured to assist the Irish in throwing off the yoke of England during the reign of Elizabeth; but in this undertaking they failed, and Elizabeth fully confirmed the English dominion in that island. The attempt to promote the civilization of Ireland was first commenced in a rational manner by James. He planted colonies from England and from Scotland, in different places of the country, and introduced a regular and impartial administration of justice; and thus laid the foundation of all the future improvements of Ireland.

*Recent history.* The civilization of the Irish was not the termination of the troubles of their country. As they gradually emerged from their former barbarity, they began to regain sight of those privileges of which they had been wrongfully deprived. The history of I. during the last cent., is only that of the attempts of the British to deprive the Irish of all separate and independent political existence; and of the efforts of the latter to resist the encroachments of the former on their national liberties. Religious, no less than political views, had influence in instigating the Irish to oppose the British government, and commit the atrocities of the rebellion of 1641, which must ever disgrace the pages of Irish history. The same union of religious and political zeal appeared in the support afforded to James II.,—a prince who had acknowledged himself to be of the Catholic persuasion; and it has since evinced itself on many occasions. The spirit of discontent displayed by the Irish Catholics, unfortunately afforded only new pretences to the British government to lay them under more severe restrictions, and to deprive them of the few privileges which remained to them. An almost general sequestration of property took place, and nearly the whole of the landed population were pursued to the western province—the most barren and desolate part of the island. When the Irish connected their religious with their civil grievances, it appears not very surprising that they early formed plans for the purpose of obtaining redress. A bill was passed in the British parliament declaring that the British legislature had full power by its laws to bind the people of I. This bill excited a very general indignation, which was augmented rather than diminished, by the patent granted to Wood, an Englishman, for supplying Ireland with copper coinage. The coin issued by Wood was of the basest kind, and the transaction has been rendered famous by the warmth and success with which Swift engaged in the cause of his country. The debate concerning the copper money was followed by another respecting the national debt. The British administration asserted their right to dispose of such parts of the Irish revenue, as were more than sufficient for the service of the current year, in whatever way they thought proper; the Irish opposed the pretension, but their opposition did not prevent the assumed right from being exercised. Irish discontent has generally appeared very conspicuously in the associations which have been formed at different times, and under various pretences, but generally with the same view,—the emancipation of I. from what was termed British tyranny. Unfortunately for I., those associations, instead of being animated with pure patriotic zeal, were frequently nothing better than bands of lawless depredators, whose measures tended to increase rather than diminish the misfortunes of their country. Among such associations, the White Boys made themselves formidable at the accession of George III., and the Oak Boys about two years later. They were followed by the Steel Boys; more recently by the United Irishmen,—an association more formidable than any of the preceding. Among the abuses of which the Irish complained was the duration of their parliaments. In 1768, eight years were declared to form the longest period during which a parliament could subsist. Next to religious tyranny, the restrictions which had been imposed on Irish trade most irritated the minds of the people. In 1779, Lord North procured several relaxations of those restrictions which had formerly been imposed on trade; but the Irish, elated by the grants which they had received, and attributing them not to the generosity of the British ministry, but to necessity and fear, with very little circumspection proceeded to demand a free constitution, and boldly declared I. to be an independent kingdom, and that the Irish were bound to submit to no other authority but that of the king, with the parliament of I. The declaration of independence, however, failed to obtain the sanction of the national legislature; until, after the lapse of many years of agitation, a message from the lord-lieutenant directed the attention of that body anew to the subject. The bill declaring the independence of I. now passed the Irish parliament, and the lord-lieutenant promised that it should meet the approbation of his Britannic majesty. It was expected that this concession, which took place in 1782, would have secured the tranquillity of I.; but the hopes entertained by the friends of peace proved to be premature. The declaration of Irish independence had been procured principally by the Protestant party. The interests of the Catholics, therefore, were somewhat neglected; and they had not obtained that share of privileges to which they fancied themselves entitled. This was the occasion of new disturbances, until the parliament of Britain thought it proper to appease the Catholics by granting them all the privileges of Protestant subjects, except those of being eligible to a few of the great offices of State, and of sitting and voting in

either house of parliament. Instead, however, of soothing the public agitations, this grant of privileges seemed only to exasperate them. Catholic emancipation—by which was meant a complete community of all kinds of privileges—was next loudly demanded; and to this was added a request for reform in the representation in parliament, and of the duration of those meetings. While I. was thus involved in agitating debates, that revolution commenced in a neighbouring nation in which so many fondly hoped they saw the era of freedom to the human race. The French promised aid to all that panted for political emancipation; why might not the Irish accept the proffered assistance? Such were the designs which, however well concealed, occupied the minds of a considerable part of the community of I., and which at length precipitated the nation into all the horrors of rebellion and civil war. Government now despatched Cornwallis to I., with the commission of lord-lieutenant,—a man whose military talents were sufficient to crush the rebels on the field, and whose civil virtues and moderation were calculated to reconcile the most disaffected. He arrived in I. on the 20th of June 1798, and immediately made known his pacific intentions. A bill of general amnesty was passed. Bodies of the fugitive rebels every day laid down their arms, and in a short time this rebellion, at first apparently alarming, was completely defeated.

*The Union.* To prevent similar insurrections, and to consolidate the interests of all parts of the British empire, it was now resolved to unite Britain and I. into one kingdom. This union was recommended by the viceroy to the Irish parliament on the 22d of January 1799. In the house of lords a favourable address was voted by a large majority; in the commons, after a debate which lasted 22 hours, there was a majority of only one in favour of the measure. When it was again brought forward, the next day, however, those who opposed the union had a majority of 5, but the detail of the measure was postponed till the next year. When the Irish parliament assembled, on the 15th of January 1800, a motion was made hostile to the measure, which was negatived by a majority of 42. The house of peers were likewise more decidedly in favour of a union; but there was still a formidable opposition headed by Mr Grattan. On the 21st of May, on a motion that leave be given to bring in a bill for the union into the house of commons, there were 160 for it and 100 against it; and on the 5th of June the bill passed the committee. In the house of lords there was still less opposition; and the subject having been discussed in the British parliament, the bill received the royal assent on the 2d of July. In 1803 a rash attempt made by a few young men to overturn the existing order of things, instantly involved themselves and their companions in ruin.—It had been generally understood while negotiating the union, that, in the event of its taking place, the Catholics might look forward to the removal of all their disabilities. In these expectations, however, they were disappointed; and the friends of this measure were baffled in several attempts which they made to procure the repeal of Catholic disabilities. At last, under circumstances still fresh in the memory of many, this great and important measure was finally carried on the 10th of April 1829, and received the royal assent on the 13th.

**IRELAND (New),** a long narrow island of the S. Pacific, separated from New Britain on the NE by St. George's channel, 42 m. in width; and on the SE from New Hanover by Byron's strait. It lies between 2° 30' and 4° 50' S lat., and between 150° 40' and 158° 15' E long. Its length from NW to SE is about 240 m.; its medium breadth 24 m. Its surface is covered with mountains, some of which rise to the height of 2,000 ft. above sea-level, and are well-wooded. Trees of large size are found along the coasts; the wild nutmeg grows here in abundance, and the cocoa-palm in the highest perfection. Birds in the greatest variety fill the woods; and serpents and scorpions are not uncommon. The inhabitants are not so black as the Negroes of Africa, but not less disagreeable in aspect. Their hair is long and woolly. In height they scarcely exceed 5 ft., and evince little muscular strength. The lance, tomahawk, and sling, form their principal weapons of war. They construct canoes of large size, and have some musical instruments. Shells strung into necklaces and bracelets, and head-plumes, form their only personal adornments. The name New I. is frequently understood to comprise also the surrounding group of islands, of which St. Matthew, New Hanover, and Wishart or Pecheurs islands, are the principal.

**IRELAND'S EYE,** a rocky islet in the Irish sea, co. Dublin, 1 m. N of Howth, and nearly 1½ m. E of the Portmarnock peninsula. It comprises an area of upwards of 53 acres, and rises in a pyramidal shape opposite Howth harbour, to which it forms a natural breakwater.

**IRELETH**, a chapelry in the p. of Dalton-in-Furness, Lancashire.

**IREN**, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Perm, which has its source in the district and 39 m. SW of Krasno-Oufimsk; runs N across the districts of Osa and Kungur; and throws itself into the Silva, on the l. bank, near Kungur, after a course of 120 m. The water of this river, although limpid, is so much impregnated with lime as to be unfit for drinking, and it is remarkably destitute of fish.

**IRENAM**, a small town of India, in the prov. of Cachar, 21 m. ESE of Cosipur.

**IRETON-KIRK**, a parish in Derbyshire, 3 m. SSW of Wirksworth. Area 2,290 acres. Pop. 735.

**IRETON-WOOD**, a township in the p. of Ireton-Kirk, Derbyshire,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  m. SSW of Wirksworth. Area 2,490 acres. Pop. in 1831, 138; in 1851, 166.

**IRGHIZ** (BOLCHOI or GREAT), a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Saratov, and district of Volsk. It has its source in the E part of the district; runs in an extremely sinuous course to the W; and throws itself into the Volga, on the l. bank, opposite Volsk. The distance, in a direct line from its source to the Volsk, does not exceed 150 m., while its sinuosities measure double that distance.

**IRGHIZ** (MALOI or LITTLE), a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Saratov, and district of Khvalinsk. It has its source towards the middle of the district; runs W; and dividing into two arms, throws itself into the Volga, on the l. bank, between Khvalinsk and Volsk, and after a sinuous course of about 120 m.—Elephants' and rhinoceros's teeth have frequently been found in this river.

**IRGHIZ**, or **OLU-IRGHIZ**, a river of Independent Tartary, in the country of the Khirghiz of the middle horde, which issues from Tchalkar; makes a considerable circuit towards the S; joins the Turgai; and discharges itself into Lake Aksakal. It has a total course of about 300 m., through a country to a great extent covered with sand, and studded with salt lakes.

**IRIEIX** (St.). See **YRIEIX** (St.).

**IRIEPAR**, a town of Spain, in New Castile, in the prov. and partido and 2 m. ESE of Guadalajara, at the foot of a mountain-chain, and near the Henares. Pop. 526.

**IRIGNY**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Rhone, and cant. and 2 m. SE of St. Genis-Laval, near the l. bank of the Rhone. Pop. 1,170. It contains numerous villas belonging to the inhabitants of Lyons, from which it is only 5 m. distant.

**IRISH CHANNEL**, the name usually borne by that arm of the Atlantic which separates Ireland on the W, from Scotland and England on the E. In its extreme limits, it might be regarded as opening on the N between Malin-head on the N coast of Ireland, and the S extremity of the island of Islay in Scotland; and on the S, between Cape Clear on the S coast of Ireland, and the Land's End, or SW point of England. It is usual, however, to confine the term to the central section of the large channel lying between these limits, viz. to that portion of it which lies between a line drawn from Carnore point, the SE extremity of Ireland, and St. David's head, on the coast of Pembrokeshire, on the S; and the Copeland isles, off Belfast lough, and the Mull of Galloway, on the N. Within these latter limits, the L channel lies between the parallels of  $51^{\circ} 50'$  and  $54^{\circ} 38'$ , and the meridians of  $2^{\circ} 50'$  and  $6^{\circ} 25' W$ ; and has an extreme length of 185 m. from N to S; with an extreme breadth on the parallel of Morecambe bay, of 140 m. Its outline is sinuous. On the E side it presents the comparatively large indentations of Luce bay, the Solway frith, Morecambe bay, the estuaries of the Ribble, the Mersey, and the Dee, Carnarvon bay, and Cardigan bay; on the W, and in like order from N to S, Strangford lough, Dundrum bay, Carlingford bay, Dundalk bay, Dublin bay, and Wexford haven. In the centre of its N section, lies the large island of Man; and towards the central part of its E side, the island of Anglesey.

**IRISHTOWN**, a village in the p. of Donnybrook, co. Dublin, on the S side of Dublin bay,  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a mile SE of Ringsend. Area 57 acres. Pop. in 1851,

1,244. A Roman Catholic p. in the dio. of Dublin, bears the name of Irishtown and Donnybrook.—Also a village in the p. of Barry, co. Meath. Pop. in 1851, 9.—Also a village in the p. of Ardea, Queen's co., forming a suburb of Mountmellick.—Also the name of generally the oldest and poorest part of each of a considerable number of the old towns of Ireland.

**IRIRI**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, which flows through the plain at the foot of the Serra-dos-Órgãos, and throws itself into the bay of Nitherôhi, between the rios Magé and Suruhimirim.—Also a small river in the same prov., in the district of Mangaratiba, an affluent of the bay of Angra-dos-Reis.

**IRIRI-GUAÇU** and **IRIRI-MIRIM**, two rivers of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, which unite in the district of Parati, and flow into the bay of Angra-dos-Reis.

**IRIRIHI**, or **IRIRI-MIRIM**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Santa Catharina, and district of São Francisco, which flows into the sea near the Rio Gravata. It is crossed by the imperial road, and is navigable for canoes.

**IRIRITIBA**. See **BENEVENTE**.

**IRIRUAMA**. See **ARARUAMA**.

**IRISSARRY**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Basses-Pyrenees, cant. of Iholdy, 19 m. W of Mauleon. Pop. 1,179. It was formerly the capital of a small territory of the same name.

**IRITUIA**, a parish of Brazil, in the prov. of Para and district of Belem, near the Guama.

**IRIUANA**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Para, an affluent of the Pacajaz.

**IRK**, a river in Lancashire, which falls into the Irwell, near Manchester.

**IRKI**, a town of Northern Hindostan, in the state of Gurhwal, 20 m. SE of Bilaspur.

**IRKLEIEV**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 101 m. W of Poltava, district and 18 m. SE of Zolotonocha, on the l. bank of the Irklei.

**IRKUT**, a river of Russia in Asia, in the gov. and district of Irkutsk, which has its source in lake Ichir, at the foot of the Sayansk mountains, and near the Chinese frontier; runs first E, passes Tankinskai, bends NE, and joins the Angara, on the l. bank, at Irkutsk, after a course of about 240 m.

**IRKUTSK**, a government of Asiatic Russia, formerly comprising the whole of Eastern Siberia, and divided into 4 *oblasti* or districts, viz. Irkutsk Proper, Nerchinsk, Yakutsk, and Okhotsk. The two latter of these divisions have been detached from it in recent times; and the present gov. is bounded on the N by a line drawn from the r. or E bank of the Ilenepeia river, at the intersection of the parallel of  $67^{\circ} 30'$ ; to the l. or W bank of the Lena, near the intersection of  $60^{\circ} 30'$ ; on the E by the course of the Lena, upwards to the junction of the Vitim, and along the course of that river, which separates it from the prov. of Yakutsk, till it strikes the Jablonnoi mountains; thence down the Chilka, a head-stream of the Amur, to the point of confluence of that river with the other great head-stream of the Amur, the Argun; thence up the Argun to the junction of the Kailar, in about N lat.  $49^{\circ} 30'$ , where the boundary with Mongolia turns W. From this point the S frontier runs in a waving line to the Khingan chain, which it intersects under the parallel of  $49^{\circ} 20'$ ; and thence it runs preavillingly WNW, passing between Kiakhba and Maimatchin, crossing the Selenga, striking mount Goubi, and thence running along the water-shed between the head-streams of the Selenga and the Jenessei on the S, and those flowing to Lake Baikal and the Angara on the N, till it strikes mount Ergik-targak-taigan, in about N lat.  $53^{\circ} 20'$



E long. 96° 20'. From this point it turns NNE, crosses the great road from Irkutsk to Krasnojarsk at Ontninsk; and runs in a very irregular line through the territories of the Tungusian nomadic tribes, till it reaches the point of departure of the N frontier line, on the river Ilnepeia; defining throughout its whole length the boundary between the govts. of Irkutsk and Yenisei. Within the boundaries now traced, lie on the S and SW, the great lake Baikal, the basins of its great tributaries, the Upper or N. Angara, and the Bargusine, and of the lower part of the Selenga; the upper part of the basin of the Lena and of the Lower Tunguska, on the N; and the basin of the Chilka on the SE. The general level of the surface from the town of Yakutsk to the N and E shores of Lake Baikal, is from 2,500 to 3,000 ft. above sea-level. Ermann estimates the elevation of the town of Irkutsk on the Baikal, at 1,237 ft. above sea-level; and for 140 m. between this town and the Chinese frontier, the country rises gradually 975 ft. above Irkutsk. Then follows a more rapid ascent for 170 m. S, or as far as Urga in Mongolia; whence an elevation of 3,187 ft. above sea-level is continued for nearly 400 m. to the N skirts of the Gobi. Along the course of the Lower Angara, the surface falls rapidly to the town of Irkutsk, and more gradually below that town towards its junction with the Yenisei. —The climate throughout a great part of this gov. is very severe; yet in many parts agriculture is successfully cultivated, and the flora around Irkutsk exhibits the plants of warmer countries intermixed with those of Arctic regions; the *Prunus Armeniaca*, or true apricot, with the Siberian stone-pine and the dwarf-birch; while the environs of Nerchinsk are celebrated for their floral treasures. —Three great routes intersect this gov., and converge upon the town of Irkutsk. One of these runs from Krasnojarsk on the Yenisei SE to Irkutsk, which it approaches by the vale of the lower part of the W. Angara; another runs NNE from Irkutsk, along the valley of the Lena to Yakutsk; a third starts from the E side of the Baikal, opposite Irkutsk, and runs E to the Argun. From Irkutsk the road to Kiakhta, and thence to Urga in Mongolia, is carried round the S extremity of the Baikal, and after crossing the Selenga, is joined at Lipovska by a prolongation of the great route from the Argun. —The governor-general of Irkutsk exercises supreme control over E. Siberia, that is over the gov. of Yeniseisk, the gov. of Irkutsk, the prov. of Yakutsk, the prov. of Okhotsk, the prov. of Kamtschatka, and all the islands belonging to the American company. The native pop. is mainly composed of Russian free crown peasants, Buriats, Tunguses, and Mongols. See SIBERIA.

IRKUTSK, the cap. of the above government, and of Eastern Siberia, is situated on the E bank of the Lower Angara—here about 1,000 ft. in width—opposite the influx of the river Irkut, and 25 m. direct distance from the W shore of Lake Baikal, in N lat. 52° 16' 20", E long. 104° 19' 45"; in a plain at the foot of a hill, and chiefly occupying the concave of a crescent formed by the Angara; at an alt. of 1,234 ft. above sea-level, and 111 ft. below the level of Lake Baikal. Ranges of well-wooded hills rise on the E and NE; and a small stream called the Ushakovka, descending from these hills, flows into the Angara, after traversing a part of the town. The streets are wide but unpaved. When Dobell visited this town in 1813, it was composed of 1,830 wooden houses, 13 churches, 2 monasteries, 20 manufactories, 7 hospitals, an orphan-house, and several public schools, prisons, barracks, magazines, and mills; and had a pop. of upwards of 15,000 souls; consisting of military and civil officers, soldiers, clergy, Cossacks, merchants, tradesmen, servants, and exiles. When

Ermann visited it in 1829, it was estimated to contain 1,900 private houses; of which only 50 were of stone, the others of wood, painted yellow or light grey; 33 churches, of which 12 were of stone; an exchange, building-docks, a college, a gymnasium, a school of medicine, a theatre, several convents and prisons, and a government-house; with a pop. estimated at 15,000, including the garrison, which, with Cossacks, is usually about 4,000. The bazaars and markets are extensive, and amply provided with meat, fish, flour, poultry, vegetables, and even the wines and luxuries of Europe. The best beef sold here is supplied from Krasnojarsk, in the gov. of Yenesei; fish is abundantly supplied from the Baikal fisheries; and grain from the district of Nerchinsk. There is considerable manufacturing activity displayed at I., and an active transit trade. Linen and piece-goods, glass, hats, soap, leather, and woollen cloth for the troops, are manufactured here; and it is the great entrepot for the goods of Europe, Russia, and Russian America, which are forwarded to China. The authorities at Yakutsk, Okhotsk, and Kamtschatka also receive their rations in money and provisions from I.—Spring is earlier at I. than at Tomsk. The Angara, close to the town, is generally frozen in December, though sometimes not till January; it usually thaws again between the 20th and 30th of March. It is to be remembered, however, that this river is very rapid, and has a depth of from 50 to 60 ft. near the town. It appears from the sub-joined table of the mean temp. at I. for 10 consecutive years, from 1821 to 1830, that the mean temp. is +0° 31' of Reaumur, or 32° 7' of Fahrenheit, at the hours of 7 A.M., 2 P.M., and 9 A.M. These observations afford a result exceeding the true mean temp. of the 24 hours by 0° 782; the observations made at 2 P.M. being near the time of maximum, while the other two periods of observation are not so near the time of minimum temp. The corrected mean temp. is 31° 92, or almost exactly that of the freezing point. Dr. Ermann determined the dip of the N pole of the needle to be here 68° 6' 50; magnetic intensity, 1.6324.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	MEAN.
January, .	—18° 87	—10° 30	—17° 27	—15° 48
February, .	—14° 51	—4° 41	—12° 30	—10° 41
March, .	—7° 06	+ 3° 26	—4° 53	—2° 73
April, .	+ 1° 14	10° 05	+ 2° 09	+ 4° 43
May, .	6° 33	14° 84	7° 03	9° 67
June, .	11° 98	18° 79	11° 87	14° 21
July, .	12° 25	19° 06	12° 51	14° 61
August, .	8° 63	15° 16	9° 47	11° 69
September, .	+ 1° 31	9° 99	+ 2° 38	4° 93
October, .	—3° 79	+ 2° 51	—3° 11	—1° 46
November, .	—11° 50	—5° 38	—10° 55	—9° 14
December, .	—18° 30	—12° 00	—17° 06	—15° 79
	—2° 61	+ 5° 13	—1° 57	+ 0° 31

Ermann, who spent from the 17th of Feb. to the 19th of March in I., says that during his entire stay the sky was without a cloud, and its colour of the deepest blue. The brightness of the atmosphere gave a delightful clearness to the landscape, and lent unusual sharpness and distinctness to distant objects. The S wind is the prevailing wind, but is completely exhausted of humidity by the desert tracts over which it blows.

IRLAM, a hamlet in the p. of Eccles, Lancashire, 8 m. WSW of Manchester.

IRLBACH, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of Upper Bavaria, capital of a seignorial jurisdiction in the presidial and 9 m. ESE of Straubing, and 41 m. WNW of Passau, near the r. bank of the Danube.

IRMINGLAND, a parish in Norfolk, 5 m. NW of Aylsham, on the Bure. Area 714 acres. Pop. in 1831, 16; in 1851, 13.

IRNHAM, a parish in Lincolnshire, 2 m. NE by

N of Corby, and E of the Glen. Area 3,520 acres. Pop. in 1831, 394; in 1851, 349.

IRNIS. See GIORNICO.

IRNSING, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of the Regen, presidial and 5 m. NW of Abensberg, and 18 m. SW of Ratisbonne, on the l. bank of the Danube. It has a brewery.

IRO, a river of the Chinese empire, in the country of the Kalkas, which loses itself in a small lake in N lat. 46°.

IRODOUER, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Ile-et-Vilaine and cant. of Becherel. Pop. 1,856.

IROL, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Pedro-Rio-Grande, which has its source near Cerro-Pelado-da-Encruzilhada, and flows into the Pequiri.

IROIS (CAPE), a headland of Hayti, at the W extremity of the long peninsula which forms the SW part of the island, in N lat. 18° 23' 20", and W long. 74° 29' 30". To the E of the cape is a small bay of the same name defended by a fort.

IRON (LOUGH), a sheet of water in co. Westmeath, 1½ m. in length, and about ½ a mile in breadth, comprising an area of 259 acres, and at an alt. of 204 ft. above sea-level. It receives the outlet of Lough Ouil, and is crossed at the foot by the Inny.

IRON MOUNTAINS, a ramification of the Alleghany chain, U. S., extending along the confines of the states of Tennessee and North Carolina, from Bald mountains on the SW, to the Yellow mountains on the NE.

IRON-ACTON, a parish in Gloucestershire, 3½ m. NW of Chipping-Sodbury. Area 2,927 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,372; in 1851, 1,265.

IRONDEQUOIT, a bay on the S side of Lake Ontario, in Monroe co., in the state of New York, U. S., to the E of the embouchure of the Genesee. It is about 6 m. in length from N to S, and 3 m. in breadth from E to W. A creek of the same name flows into the head of the bay, and affords good water-power.—Also a township in the same co., 5 m. N of Rochester. It has a generally level surface, bounded on the W by the Genesee, by the bay of the same name on the E, and on the N by Lake Ontario. The soil consists of sand and gravelly loam. Pop. in 1840, 1,252.

IROQUOIS, or SIX NATIONS, the name given by the French to the confederacy of North American Indians, called by the English 'THE FIVE,' and afterwards 'THE SIX NATIONS.' The Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, Senecas and Tuscaroras were the members of this confederacy. They formerly resided on the Mohawk river and the lakes which still bear their names, and extended their conquests to the Mississippi, and beyond the St. Lawrence. Their territory abounded with lakes well-stored with fish; their forests were filled with game, and they had the advantage of a fertile soil. The sachems owed their authority to public opinion; the general affairs of the confederacy were managed by a great council, composed of the chiefs, which assembled annually at Onondaga. They exterminated the Eries, drove out the Hurons and Ottawas, subdued the Illinois, Miamies, Algonquins, Lenpi-Lennapes, Shawanees, and the terror of their arms extended over a great part of Canada and the N and NE parts of the United States. In the long wars between the English and French, which continued with some interruptions for nearly a cent., until 1763, they were generally in the English interest; and, in the revolutionary war, they were also mostly in favour of the British. Their numbers have much diminished. Some of the tribes are extinct; some have made considerable advances in civilization, while others have fallen into a state of squalid misery.

IROQUOIS, a county in the E part of the state of Illinois, U. S., comprising an area of 1,428 sq. m., drained by a river of the same name, and its branches Sugar and Spring creeks, and Kankakee river. It has fine prairies, and is generally fertile. Pop. in 1840, 1,695; in 1850, 4,150. Its capital is Montgomery. It contains a village of the same name, on the S side of the Iroquois, and 180 m. NE of Springfield. Pop. 150.

IROULEGNY, a village of France, in the dep. of

the Basses-Pyrénées, cant. of St.-Etienne-de-Baigorry, 23 m. W of Mauleon. Pop. 500. In the adjacent mountains of Jarra are mines of copper and iron.

IRPEN, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Kiev, which has its source in the NW part of the district of Skvira, runs E, then N, and throws itself into the Dnieper, on the r. bank, 21 m. above Kiev, and after a course of 105 m.

IRPINO (MONTE), a summit of the Apennines, in Naples, on the W confines of the prov. of the Principato Ultra.

IRRAWADY. See IRAWADI.

IRRITZ, or GRIZICE, a town of Moravia, in the circle and 15 m. ENE of Znaim, and 24 m. SSW of Brünn.

IRRLICH, a village of Prussia, in the prov. of the Rhine, and regency of Coblenz, on the Rhine, N of Neuwied. Pop. 1,040.

IRRSEE, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of Swabia, N of Kaufbauern. Pop. 380.

IRSLINGEN, or URSLINGEN, a village of Würtemberg, in the circle of the Schwarzwald and bail. of Rottweil. Pop. in 1840, 663, chiefly Catholics. It contains the ruins of the ancient castle of the dukes of Urslingen.

IRSTEAD, a parish in Norfolk, 11 m. NE of Norwich, on the North river. Area 1,065 acres. Pop. in 1831, 169; in 1851, 155.

IRT, a river in Cumberland, formed by the junction of two streams, one of which rises in Westdalehead, and the other in Skelderskew fells, and which uniting near King's Camp, discharge themselves into the Irish sea near Ravensglass.

IRCHAT, or ANAY, a village of the Sahara, 45 m. N of Bilma, to the E of the Wady-Kawass, on the road from Fezzan to Bornu, and 480 m. S of Murzuk. It has suffered much from the incursions of the Tuaricks, and consists of only a few miserable dwellings built on and around the base of a rock.

IRTENSKOI, a fortress of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 111 m. WSW of Orenburg, district and 69 m. ENE of Uralsk, on the r. bank of the Ural.

IRTHING, a river which has its source in the range of hills which separates the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland; runs S for several miles along the confines of these counties; and joins the Eden near Newby.

IRTHINGTON, a parish and township of Cumberland, 8 m. NE by E of Carlisle, on the Irthing. Area of p. 6,050 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,023; in 1851, 1,001. Pop. of township, in 1851, 226.

IRTHLINGBOROUGH, a parish in Northampton, 2 m. NW of Higham-Ferrers, on the Nen. Area 3,720 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,262; in 1851, 1,577.

IRTIACH, a lake of Russia in Asia, in the gov. of Perm, and S part of the district of Yekaterinburg, 12 m. in length, and about 4½ m. at its greatest breadth.

IRTISH, a river of Asia, which has its source in Sungaria, towards the SE extremity of the Great Altai mountains, in N lat. 46° 45'. It runs first WNW through a wide valley enclosed on the ENE by the Great Altai, and on the S by the Altai-Alintopa; issues thence on the W through Lake Taisan, or Kong-ko-lu, in the Chinese territory, and flowing N to the confluence of the Narin, enters Asiatic Russia; traverses, with great velocity, in a WNW direction, the steppes in the E part of the prov. of Omsk; thence bends its course, first N, then WNW, into the gov. of Tobolsk, till it reaches the town of that name, when it again curves N, and, after considerable sinuities, reaches the Obi, which it joins, having run after a longer course than the Obi itself, on the l. bank, a little above

Samarovo, and 150 m. W of Surgut, in N. lat. 60° 45'. It has a total course of about 1,950 m., of which 720 m. are within the Chinese empire, 750 m. in the prov. of Omsk, and 480 m. in the gov. of Tobolsk. At its point of junction with the Obi, it has a width of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  verst, and a depth of 50 ft.; while the Obi has a width of 10 versts, and is 300 ft. deep. Its principal affluents are in the Chinese empire, on the r., the Boroi, Kaba, Kurtchum, and Narim; in the prov. of Omsk, the Bukhtarma, Ulba, Uba, and Om, on the r., and the Tchar-Gurban, Tchaganka, Tunduk, and Kamishlovka, on the l.; and in the gov. of Tobolsk, the Tara, Shish, Tui or Shui, and Demianka on the r., and on the l. the Osha, Ishim, Vagai, Tobol, and Konda. The chief places which it passes in its course are Ust-Kamenogorsk, Semipalatinsk, Iamishvsk, Jelezinsk, Omsk, Tara, Tobolsk, Demiansk, and Denshikova. Numerous villages line its banks in the gov. of Tobolsk; and in the prov. of Omsk its r. bank is studded with forts, inhabited by Cossacks and their families, for the protection of the frontier against the incursions of the Kirghiz. The l. forms numerous islands, of which the greater number are periodically submerged—the rise of the water in spring averaging generally 9 or 10 ft. Its course, from the number of shifting sandbanks with which it is obstructed, is irregular and dangerous. Its waters are light, and abound with excellent fish. Between this river and the Tobol are extensive plains intersected with lakes, and liable to inundation. On the other side, towards the Obi, is a vast steppe named Baraba, covered to a great extent with marshes, lakes, and rivers, and affording large quantities of salt. The Irtish forms a part of the great water-line of communication from St. Petersburg to the Pacific.

IRTON, a township in Seamer p., N. R. of Yorkshire, 5 m. SW of Scarborough. Pop. in 1851, 118.

IRTON, or IRTONDALE, a parish in Cumberland, 3 m. NNE of Ravenglass, on the Irt. Area 5,270 acres. Pop. in 1831, 531; in 1851, 572.

IRTZ, a river of France, in the dep. of Morbihan, which has its source 9 m. N of Vannes; runs ESE; passes Rochefort; and, after a course of 36 m., joins the Oust  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. NW of Redon.

IRUELA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, in the prov. and 36 m. ENE of Jaen, and partido of Ca-zorla. Pop. 2,374. It has a castle and an hospital. The surrounding district produces corn, wine, and oil.

IRUELA (LA), or HIRUELA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, in the prov. of Madrid, and partido of Torrelaguna, 9 m. NE of Buitrago. Pop. 279.

IRUESTE, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 19 m. E of Guadalajara, and partido of Brihuega. Pop. 239.

IRUIAME, a river of Bolivia, formed by the junction of the Iacuma and Magussa, running ESE, and which, after a course of about 240 m., joins the Mamore, on the l. bank, at Exaltacion-de-la-Cruz, in S. lat. 12° 30'.

IRUN, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Guipuzcoa, partido and 9 m. E of San Sebastian, and 38 m. WSW of Bayonne, and about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. from the l. bank of the Bidasoa, which here forms the line of separation from France. Pop. 2,471. It is built amphitheatrically, on a hill; and contains a parish-church and a town-house,—both handsome buildings,—and an hospital. The streets are tortuous and irregular, and the houses devoid of elegance. It possesses manufactories of iron ware and leather, and an extensive tile-work, and carries on an active trade in timber. The period of the foundation of this town is unknown; but from the number of ancient remains which it contains, it appears to have been a place of

some importance in the Roman era. It has been frequently captured by the French.

IRUZUI, a river of Brazil, which issues from the uninhabited woods of the prov. of Pernambuco; runs through the prov. of Parahiba; and joins the river of that name in the S of the prov. of Piaui.

IRVILLAC, or YRVILLAC, a commune of France, in the dep. of Finistere, cant. of Daoulas, 14 m. E of Brest. Pop. 2,222. It has 4 annual fairs.

IRVILLE, a village of Licking township, Muskingum co., in the state of Ohio, 56 m. E of Columbus. Pop. in 1840, 125.

IRVINE, a river in Ayrshire, forming, from a short distance beneath its source, to its entrance into the frith of Clyde, the boundary-line between the districts of Cunningham and Kyle. It rises, in two head-waters, on the E boundary of Ayrshire; traces the boundary of Ayrshire 1 m. S; then turns W; enters the interior of the co.; and thence, till near its embouchure, pursues a course which—with the exception of numerous brief sinuosities—is uniformly due W. Passing through the town of Irvine at about mid-distance, it suddenly bends round till it assumes a S direction; and opposite the town of Irvine expands into a basin  $\frac{3}{4}$  m. broad, which receives the Garnock river at its NW extremity, and communicates by a narrow mouth with the frith of Clyde.—Also a parish in the S part of the district of Cunningham, in Ayrshire. Pop. in 1831, 5,200; in 1851, 5,719.—Also a royal burgh and a seaport on the r. bank of the Irvine, 1 m. in a direct line NE of the nearest point of the frith of Clyde; and 11 m. N of Ayr. Pop. in 1851, 4,790. So far back as 1790, the port had, in strict connection with the town, 51 vessels = 3,682 tons, besides other vessels nominally belonging to it, but properly connected with Saltcoats and Largs. In 1837 its vessels had increased in number to 106 = 11,535 tons; and in 1850 to 124 vessels = 17,995 tons. The quantity of coals shipped coastwise from this port in 1849 was 188,782 tons; in 1850, 191,420 tons. The quantity exported in 1849 amounted to 71,066 tons, value £21,054; and in 1850 to 73,667 tons, value £20,929. Besides shipping vast quantities of coals both coastwise and for foreign parts, the town, with its dependencies, exports carpeting, tanned leather, rye-grass seed, and tree plants, and also, on a smaller scale, cotton yarn, cotton cloth, herrings, sheep-skins tawed, and other articles; and imports from Ireland oats, butter, orchard-produce, feathers, untanned hides, linen cloth, quilts, limestone and other articles; and from America timber, staves, and spars, as well as exports to the latter market carpeting, woollen cloth, and articles of leather manufacture. Across the mouth of the basin—as at the mouth of the river Ayr—is a bar which prevents the entrance of vessels of any considerable burden. The depth of water from the quay to the bar is generally from 9 to 11 ft. at spring tides; in high storms, with the wind from the S or SW, it is sometimes 16 ft. The town has manufactories in rope-making, tanning and dressing leather, constructing anchors and cables, distilling whisky, making magnesia, and fabricating various articles of artisanship.—The revenue in 1832 was £1,497; in 1844, £1,766.—I. unites with Ayr, Rothesay, Inverary, and Campbelltown, in sending a member to parliament. Constituency in 1840, 244; in 1848, 236.

IRVINE, a village of Estill co., in the state of Kentucky, U. S., 68 m. SE of Frankfort, on the N side of Kentucky river. Pop. in 1840, 200.

IRVINESTOWN, or LOWTHERSTOWN, a post-town in the p. of Derryvullen, co. Fermanagh, 5 m. SE of Kesh, and  $7\frac{3}{4}$  m. N of Enniskillen. Area 36 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,047; in 1851, 1,008.

IRVING, a village and port-of-entry of Hanover



township, Chautauque co., in the state of New York, U. S., on Cattaraugus creek, at its entrance into Lake Erie. In 1840 it contained about 50 inhabitants.—Also a v. of Greenburgh township, Westchester co., in the same state, 26 m. N of New York, on the E side of Hudson river. Pop. 100.

IRVON, a river in Brecknockshire, which has its source in the hills near Llanvihangel-Abergwessin; flows E, receiving in its course of about 20 m. the Camarch, Dulas, and Whefry; and joins the Wye about a  $\frac{1}{2}$  m. below the bridge near Builth.

IRWELL, a river in Lancashire, which rises near Todmorton; runs S past Rochdale, Bury, and Manchester; receives the Irk and Medlock; and, after a tortuous course of about 40 m., joins the Mersey at Flixton.

IRWIN, a county in the S part of the state of Georgia, U. S., comprising an area of 2,079 sq. m., drained by branches of Alapahaw, Suwannee, Withlacoochee, and Ocklockony rivers. Pop. in 1840, 2,038, of whom 266 were slaves; in 1850, 3,292. Its capital, Irwinville, is on the E side of the Alapahaw, 105 m. S of Milledgeville.—Also a township of Venango co., in the state of Pennsylvania, 12 m. SW of Franklin. Its surface is level, and is drained by Scrub-grass creek. Pop. 1,111.

IRWINTON, a village of Wilkinson co., in the state of Georgia, U. S., 20 m. S of Milledgeville, on a gravelly ridge between Commissioner's and Big Sandy creeks, 4 m. W of Oconee river. Pop. in 1840, 150.

IS-SUR-TILLE, a canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of the Cote-d'Or, and arrond. of Dijon. The cant. comprises 23 com. Pop. in 1831, 10,046; in 1841, 10,012.—The town is 17 m. NNE of Dijon, on the Ignon, near its confluence with the Tille. Pop. 1,436. It is well-built, and has an hospital. It possesses manufactories of cloth and other woollen fabrics, iron-ware, leather, a cotton spinning-mill, and several forges. Fairs for cattle, horses, and hosiery, are held here six times a-year. In the environs are extensive quarries of white shelly stone, suitable for troughs, &c.

ISA, a river of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Penza, which has its source in the district and 24 m. NE of Mokchansk; thence enters the district of Insara; and throws itself into the Mokcha, on the r. bank, 9 m. E of Troitzk, and after a course of 75 m.—Also a river in the gov. of Vitebsk, which issues from a little lake in the district and 11 m. SW of Sebej; runs N into the gov. of Pskov; and throws itself into the Velikaia, on the l. bank, at the v. of Iagotkino, 23 m. WSW of Novorjev, and after a course of about 69 m.

ISA, a town of Tripoli, on the shore of the gulf of Sidra, 130 m. SE of Tripoli.—Also an artificial arm of the Euphrates, or canal, branching-off from a spot about 6 m. above Felujah, and crossing Mesopotamia in an E course to the Tigris.

ISA-FIORD, or ISAVJARDARDJUP, a gulf of Iceland, in the NW part of Westland. It is about 25 m. in length, and 7 m. in breadth, and lies between the parallels of  $66^{\circ} 15'$  and  $66^{\circ}$ . Towards the S it gives off numerous branches, running S into the main body of the syssel or district of L, which lies around the gulf.

ISAACS (THE), a group of islands in the Bahama archipelago, in the NW part of the Great bank of Bahama, and S of the island of Great Bahama. The two principal islands bear the names of the Great and the Little Isaac. The former is about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. in length from E to W, and has its centre in N lat.  $26^{\circ} 2'$ , W long.  $79^{\circ} 6'$ .

ISABA, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Navarra, and partido of Aviz, 35 m. NE of Pamplona, on the

slope of a steep and lofty hill, between the Ezca and Belabarce. Pop. 1,000. It has a parish-church with a lofty tower, 3 hermitages, and an hospital; and possesses a manufactory of woollen fabrics, and a fulling-mill.

ISABEL (SANTA). See ELIZABETH ISLAND.

ISABEL (SANTA), a small town of Brazil, in the prov. and 75 m. NE of São-Paulo, on the Mandu, an affluent of the Tiete.—Also a parish in the prov. of Para, on the r. bank of the Rio-Negro, 75 m. above Lamalonga. It is inhabited chiefly by Indians of the Uahupe tribe. Fishing and the chase form their principal occupations.—Also an island in the Para, on the Marajó coast, opposite the embouchure of the Perihá and the Furo Santa Isabel, which here flow together into the Para.

ISABELICA (PORTA), a port of Hayti, on the N coast of the island, at the mouth of the little river Bacabonico, enclosed on the N by a peninsula terminating in Ponta Isabelica, in N lat.  $19^{\circ} 58' 40''$ , W long.  $71^{\circ} 1' 9''$ . It was in the vicinity of this port that the first Spanish settlement was formed in this island by Columbus, in December 1493. The point forms the most northerly part of the island. It is surrounded by rocks, and commanded by a lofty mountain.

ISABELLA, a district in the state of Michigan, U. S., comprising an area of 576 sq. m., watered by Chippewa and Salt rivers. It is attached for judicial purposes to Ionia co.—Also an island in the Pacific ocean, off the coast of the Mexican state of Xalisco, in N lat.  $21^{\circ} 45'$ , W long.  $106^{\circ}$ .

ISABELLA (CAPE), a headland of British North America, at the head of Baffin's bay, between a bay of the same name and Smith's bay, in N lat.  $77^{\circ} 48'$ , W long.  $77^{\circ} 0'$ .—Also a headland of Boothia Felix, in N lat.  $69^{\circ} 25'$ , W long.  $93^{\circ} 50'$ .

ISABELLA (SAINT), or YSABEL (SANTA), an island of the S. Pacific, one of the largest and most central of the group of the Salomon islands. It is separated from the island of Choiseul on the WNW by Manning strait, and by Indispensable strait on the ESE from the island of Guadalcanar. It lies between  $7^{\circ} 15'$  and  $8^{\circ} 30'$  S lat., and between  $157^{\circ} 40'$  and  $159^{\circ} 15'$  E. long., and comprises an area about 105 m. in length from NW to SE, and from 16 to 22 m. in breadth. It is generally mountainous, and towards the NE exhibits considerable irregularity of outline. Its principal bays are Praslin and Estretta; the former, ESE of Cape Comfort, forms a good harbour. It was discovered by Mendana, who named it after his wife, Isabel-de-Baretos.

ISAC, a river of France, which has its source in the dep. of the Loire-Inferieure, formed by the junction near Blain of several streams, the principal of which has its source to the E of the large village of Abbaretz, in a fathomless well. It runs in a W direction, past Blain and Geronnet, and after a course of about 45 m., joins the Vilaine on the l. bank, opposite Rieux.

ISACA, a town of Central Africa, on the r. bank of the Joliba, inhabited by from 700 to 800 Foulahs, subjects of Sego-Ahmadu, the capital of which, Lamdu-Lillahi, is a day's journey to the E. The inhabitants rear flocks and cultivate rice in the plains, which are annually inundated by the rivers in the vicinity. They manufacture a beautiful kind of pottery, and prepare large quantities of dried fish for the Jenné market. Caillié was informed that a great arm of the river, which branches off at Sego, rejoins it a  $\frac{1}{2}$  m. from L, forming an immense island. This arm comes from the W, and is very broad, but has not a rapid current.

ISAEVA, or ISAEV, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of the Don Cossacks, and district of

Mious, 48 m. NW of Novo-Cherkask, near the Kriepkaia.

ISAKHEYL, or ESAUKHEYL, a slip of country on the W bank of the Indus, and lying parallel with it, having the Kalabagh range on the N; the Khyssore range on the S; and the Salt range on the W. The Indus, gradually encroaching on the E side of this district, has transferred as it were a large portion of the soil of this territory to its E bank, where it now forms an alluvial tract, about 12 m. broad when the river is at its lowest. I. is itself a fertile, well-watered, populous, and highly-cultivated country, highly fertile in wheat. In 1848 it contained 59,762 begahs of cultivated land.

ISAKLI, a town of Turkey in Asia, in Caramania, sanj, and 11 m. NW of Ak-Shehr, 35 m. ESE of Afium-kara-hissar, and about 5 m. to the E of the Ak-Shehr-Ghiel. It has a mosque, a public bath, and a caravanserai. The environs are covered with gardens, vineyards, and orchards, and abound with excellent fruit.

ISAKOU, or Y-TSOU, a district of Japan, in the prov. of Satsuma.

ISAKTCHA, a frontier town of Turkey in Europe, in Bulgaria, in the sanj, and 100 m. NE of Silistria, and 20 m. W of Tultsha, on the r. bank of the Danube. It is defended by a fortress, and has several mosques. It is populous, and possesses an active trade. The passage across the river, which is here much frequented, is effected by a ferry-boat. This town was taken by the Russians in 1790 and 1828.

ISALCO, IZALCO, or YSALCO, a town of Central America, in the state and 38 m. W of San Salvador, dep. and 8 m. NE of Zonzonate. Previous to the revolution, its inhabitants were numbered at 6,000. To the N of San Salvador is a volcano of the same name, which has an apparent altitude of 1,500 ft. above sea-level, and is remarkable for its incessant activity, forming in fact a kind of natural lighthouse, and a leading mark for the anchorage of Acajutla.

ISALL, or ISEL, a parish and township in Cumberland,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  m. NE of Cockermouth, on the Derwent. Area of p. 6,760 acres. Pop. in 1851, 556.

ISALL-OLD-PARK, a township in the p. of Isall, Cumberland, 5 m. NE by E of Cockermouth. Pop. in 1851, 87.

ISALLT, a township in the p. of Llys-Faen, Carnarvonshire.

ISAMAL, a town of Yucatan, between Valladolid and Merida. It is well laid out, and the houses are well built. About five-sixths of the pop. are Indians.

ISANOTZKOI, one of the straits by which Behring's sea opens into the Arctic ocean. It separates the island of Onniamak, in the Aleutian archipelago, from the SW extremity of the peninsula of Alaska, in Russian America. It lies about  $55^{\circ}$  N lat., and is 24 m. in length, and 9 m. in breadth. The depth of water is not great, but the tides flow through it with violence; and in winter, with a SE wind, it becomes impassable.

ISAR, a river which has its source in the Tyrol, 6 m. NE of Innspruck, flows thence NNE into the circle of Upper Bavaria, passing in its course Munich, Freising, Moosburg, and Landshut; then taking an ENE direction, enters the circle of Lower Bavaria, passes Landau, and joins the Danube on the r. bank, nearly opposite Deckendorf, and after a rapid course of about 198 m. Its principal affluents are the Loisach and Ammer, on the l., and the Senet on the r.

ISAR-AFON, a township in the p. of Caerhun, Carnarvonshire.

ISARDJIK, an ancient mountain-fortress of Turkey in Europe, in the prov. of Bosnia, sanj, and 46 m. WNW of Novi-Bazar, and 8 m. SE of Priepol. It is now used as a state prison.

ISASONDO, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Guipuzcoa and partido of Tolosa, 30 m. SSE of San Sebastian, and near the Oria and Zubin. Pop. 475. It has an hospital. In the vicinity is a mineral spring.

ISAURA, a sanjak in the pash. of Konieh or Konieh, in Asiatic Turkey. Near Hajilar, in this sanj. are the ruins of the ancient *Isauria*.

ISAVENA, a river of Spain, in Aragon, in the prov. of Huesca, which has its source in a ramification of the Pyrenees, to the W of Cas-Tor; flows S, then SSW; and joins the Essera at Grans, 5 m. NE of the confluence of that river with the Cinca.

ISBARTAH, or HAMID, a town of Turkey in Asia, in Anatolia, capital of the kadilik of Hamid, magnificently situated at the foot of a mountain range connected with mount Taurus, 20 m. ESE of Burdur, and near an affluent of the Aksu. It consists of about 150 houses, and is well supplied with water, and surrounded with fine gardens.

ISBAT, a town of Turkey in Europe, in Albania, in the sanjak and 23 m. WNW of Ochrida, on an affluent of the Scombi.

ISCA, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Calabria-Ultra, district and 25 m. S of Catanzaro, cant. and 3 m. NNW of Badolato, on a hill. Pop. 1,800. It has 2 parish churches.

ISCANZE, a summit of the Andes, in New Grenada, in the S part of the dep. of the Cauca, district and 55 m. SSW of Popayan. It gives rise to a river of the same name, an affluent of the Caqueta.

ISCAR, or FUENTELOLMO-DE-ISCAR, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, in the prov. and 35 m. NNW of Segovia, partido and 11 m. W of Cuellar, in a sandy and unproductive locality. Pop. 800. It has 3 parish churches, a seignorial castle, and an hospital. In the environs are extensive plantations of pine, affording large quantities of resin.

IS-CARNEG, or ISYCARREG, a township of Montgomeryshire, 4 m. NE of Machynllaeth. Pop. 415.

ISCHIA, a town of the Pontifical states, in the delegation and 23 m. WNW of Viterbo. Pop. 1,250.

ISCHIA, the ancient *Anaria* or *Pithecula* of Pliny, and *Inarine* of Virgil, an island of Naples, situated at the N entrance and W extremity of the bay of Naples, 8 m. SW of the Capo-de-Miseno, or *Misenum promontorium*, the smaller island of Procida lying between it and the mainland. It is about 5 m. in length from E to W, and 18 m. in circuit; and has an area of 21 sq. m., with a pop. of 24,000. It is mountainous, with bold and rocky shores. The great mass of the island is composed of a rather friable species of tufa. The highest summit, Monte San Nicolò, the ancient *Epomeus Mons*, an extinct volcano, rises 2,500 ft. above sea-level, and near its summit shows traces of two large craters. Procida, the ancient *Prochyta*, according to tradition was rent from I. by an earthquake; and there are appearances of a submarine connection between both these islands and the adjacent mainland. The N side of Procida is only about 2 m. distant from the point of Misenum, and on its S side is the volcanic islet of Vivara, which seems to form the intermediate link with Ischia. For nearly five centuries this island has ceased to exhibit any active volcanic agency. The energies which were spent in this direction have found a more permanent vent in the long-dormant crater of Vesuvius. [Forbes.] The last eruption of this mountain was in 1301, when a stream of lava ran over the E part of the island to the sea. The ridge thus formed even now bears only a few scattered blades of grass and some weeds, having during 500 years made less progress than some of the lava streams of Vesuvius in 20 years. "I can conceive," says Professor Forbes, "nothing more per-

fectly beautiful than the view of this majestic island as approached from the N, especially if under the enchantment of an Italian sunset. There is just that degree of symmetry in its structure which is requisite without formality, and sufficient ruggedness to relieve the surpassing verdure with which nature has clothed the greater part of the island. The peculiar structure of the volcanic mass has given a peaked character to almost every more important part of its outward form. But the degrading nature of the soil, the lapse of centuries, and the action of the waves and of earthquakes, have prevented anything monotonous in the general configuration, and the whole is grandly surmounted by the majestic summit of Monte Epomeo, which constituting, in fact, almost the whole of I., at once unites and is supported by its tributary eminences. The entire surface of the island is so completely intersected with rugged dells, and bestrewn with shivered crags of rock, the work no doubt of those great hands which, according to tradition, have here so often desolated the face of nature, that travelling is difficult and the roads precarious. Neither horses nor vehicles of any kind exist; and asses (or *civici*, as in the debased dialect of this island they are called), form the only mode of conveyance. Yet, generally speaking, over so rough a formation nature has lavished the charms of verdure to a degree seldom met with even in Italy, and there might be found many a sequestered picture of retirement and natural luxuriance, upon which the eye of the traveller, returned to the sterner features of more northern zones, might wish long enough to find, except within the precincts of this favoured island. Various detached masses, such as that we have mentioned as the seat of the castle of I., and many abrupt cliffs, break the sea landscape; and farther inland, though vast quantities of Spanish chestnut and other woods, mostly cut for copse, clothe almost every rising ground, some bare crags arise in the interior of the island, and some lava currents of unbending sterility break the green slopes of the hills, while the rich mass of brushwood which wraps the enormous flanks of Epomeo to a great height above the sea, leaves its scarp-ed summit magnificently insulated to every wind of heaven, and its crumbling materials have been picturesquely blanched into a greyish white hue by the weathering of centuries. Pretty extensive vineyards are in some places cultivated, but such is the profusion of rocky masses, especially on the N side of the island, that the labour of clearing the ground, which is but imperfectly done, is enormous; and in order to dispose of the stones, walls are built round them in great numbers and of immense height, leaving only narrow rugged lanes between, which give the country a most peculiar appearance. The general view from a distance is, however, fortunately not much spoiled by these interminable-looking walls. This arises from the extreme ruggedness of the ground, the abundant interspersed verdure, and the still more fortunate circumstance of the green colour which tinges all the rocks of this district, and renders them less glaring. So enormous are some of the masses hurled from higher situations, that any attempt to remove them appearing fruitless, they have, from the soft nature of the rock, been hewn entirely out into wine cellars.—The soil of I. is fertile, producing wheat, maize, wine, figs, and all sorts of fruit. The hills are covered with chestnut trees, or with coppice-wood, and low shrubs such as the arbutus, myrtle, and heath. It is divided into 2 cantons, and contains 4 small towns or villages, viz.: Ischia or Celso, a town on the E coast, of 3,000 inhabitants, which is a bishop's see, and has a castle, crowning the summit of an insulated rock, which is united to the island

by a bridge; Foria or Furia, on the W coast, built upon the summit of an extinct volcano, and the most commercial place on the island; Casamicciola, the neighbourhood of which produces excellent potter's clay, and whence large quantities of pottery are sent to Naples; and Lacco. These 4 towns, which all lie towards the N side, are connected by a broad road, the only regular one in the island. There are besides 8 or 9 straggling villages. The N district, and the environs of I., are more picturesque than the S part. I. abounds with mineral springs; and its mud, sand, and mineral baths are resorted to by invalids from Naples, for rheumatic and cutaneous diseases. From the same mountain which produces the sulphureous and the thermal waters, a cold spring issues, of the purest quality, which is conveyed by aqueducts to the town of I. Siano asserts that the temp. of the spring named Le Petrelle reaches the boiling point. That of the Gurgitello, near Casamicciola, has a temp. of 149°. *Fumarole*, or emissions of aqueous vapour of a high temp., are numerous. "The chief source of industry in I. is the manufacture of earthen pitchers, which are used in carrying water; and of glazed tiles, with which apartments are often floored. The clay from which they are fabricated is found upon the Epomeo, in the neighbourhood of an old crater. From thence it is fetched, partly in wide straw-woven sacks, which are laid across the back of a donkey; partly in large baskets, which are carried upon men's heads. When the day is long, and the labourer robust, he can accomplish this laborious task three times a-day; and although his descent is often perilous, on account of the falling of rubbish and stones, yet the utmost he can gain is a few pence. Besides these branches of industry, the principal one is the cultivation of the vine, which is a source of subsistence to the inhabitants of I. as well as of the other islands. All the islands in this quarter are full of vineyards. Large cellars are excavated out of the rock; and the patient ass is seen incessantly laden with small casks, bearing its burthen from these caves down to the marina, where the wine is shipped in small vessels for Civita Vecchia. These two productions—the clay and the vine—have determined the occupations of the islanders. Hence they are potters, vine-dressers and wine merchants, sailors and donkey-drivers. The women, with their old-fashioned spindles, spin flax, silk, and cotton, which they weave into divers stuffs for their own use; and I have rarely seen even the youngest girl without her spindle." [*F. Lewald*.]—According to Strabo, the Erythraeans, and afterwards the Chalcidians, settled on this island at a remote period, but were successively driven from it by the violence of its earthquakes. A colony, established upon it by Hiero, king of Syracuse, about 380 B.C., forsook it from the same cause. At the close of the 13th cent. it fell into the hands of the houses of Aragon and Anjou. In 1301–2 it was again, and for the last time, desolated by volcanic eruptions. In 1828 a shock was felt in the NE part of the island.

ISCHITTELLA, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Capitanata, district and 28 m. NE of St. Severo, cant. and 3 m. NNW of Vico, on a high hill. Pop. 3,500. It has a parish church and a convent.

ISCHL, a town of the archduchy of Austria, in the district above the Ens and circle of Traun, 11 m. N of Hallstadt, near the source of the Traun, which is here crossed by a suspension bridge, at the confluence of the Ischl, and at an alt. of 1,500 ft. above sea-level. Pop. 1,903. It has a Catholic church, a Lutheran chapel, and handsome saline baths. It is the Malvern or Matlock of Austria, and has been much improved of late years. An easy route to it is by the road from Linz to Gemunden, whence there is a con-



veyance by steam-boat across the lake of Gemunden to a village about 2 hours from I. In the adjacent mountain of Ischlberg is a mine of salt.

IS-COED-CILMARCH, and ISCOED, or ISHCOED. See CILMARCH.

IS-COYD, a chapelry in the p. of Malpas, Flintshire, 3 m. W. of Whitechurch. Pop. in 1851, 441.

ISCUCHANOS, an Indian tribe in Southern Peru, inhabiting the Montana-de-Huanta. They maintain with the inhabitants of Huanta a trade of barter, but this intercourse is occasionally interrupted by periods of hostility and marauding forays.

IS-GLAN, a township in the p. of Whitford, Flintshire.

IS-GRAIG, a township in the p. of Llanddwywe, Merionethshire. Pop. 293.

ISA-PEN-ISA, and ISA-PEN-LICHA, two townships in the p. of Dwy-gyfyl-chi, Carnarvonshire, containing respectively 76 and 363 inhabitants.

ISE, a small river of Hanover, in the prov. of Luneburg, an affluent of the Aller.

ISE, or IZE, a commune of France, in the dep. and 7 m. NW of Mayenne, cant. of Bais. Pop. 1,805.

ISE, Y-CHI, or YSSE, a prov. of Japan, in the island of Nifon, bounded on the W by Mia bay, and comprising 15 districts. It is covered with hills, and watered by numerous streams. Its principal productions are rice and timber.

ISE-FIORD, a bay of Denmark, on the N coast of the island of Sieland, opening into the Cattegat, in N lat. 55° 58', and E long. 11° 50'. It is 15 m. in depth, and about 11 m. in breadth, and narrows at the entrance to about 2 m. In form it is extremely irregular, and branches into several arms, of which the principal are Roeskilder-fiord, on the E, Lammefiord on the W, and, on the S, Sidinge-fiord.

ISEGHEM, a department and commune of Belgium, in the prov. of West Flanders, arrond. and 7 m. N of Courtrai. Pop. 8,780. It has manufactures of linen, calico, hats, ribbon, brushes, and soap, and possesses an active trade in linen and cattle.

ISELBACH, a river of Switzerland, in the NW part of the cant. of Uri, which descends from the glacier of Geschenen, on the N side of the mountain of Rothstok; flows NE through the valley and past the village of Isenthal; and falls into the Waldstatter sea, or lake of Lucern.

ISELLE, a village of Sardinia, in the prov. of Novara, and prov. of Ossola, mandamento and 9 m. NW of Domo-d'Ossola, and 5 m. W of the village of Simplon, on the road leading to the pass of that name. It has a custom-house.

ISEN, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of Upper Bavaria, presidial and 8 m. ESE of Erding, and 25 m. NE of Munich, on a river of the same name, an affluent of the Inn. Pop. 890.

ISENACH, a river of Bavaria, in the circle of the Pfalz, which has its source near Frankenstein, runs ENE, and throws itself into the Frankenthal canal after a course of about 27 m.

ISENBERGHE, a department and commune of Belgium, in the prov. of West Flanders, arrond. and 5 m. S of Furnes. Pop. 918. It has a well-frequented annual fair.

ISENBURG, a town of Prussia, in the prov. of the Rhine, regency and 10 m. N of Coblenz, circle and 7 m. NE of Neuwied. Pop. 535. It has an oil and a saw mill.

ISENBURG (NEU), a parish and village of the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, and district of Offenbach, 12 m. NNE of Darmstadt, and 4 m. SSE of Frankfurt. Pop. 1,838. It is well-built, and has manufactories of hosiery, gloves, and lace.

ISENHAGEN, a village of Hanover, in the prov. and 42 m. SSE of Luneburg. It has a convent of

women of rank, who devote themselves to the education of young ladies.

ISENHEIM, a village of France, in the dep. of Haut-Rhin, cant. and 2 m. NNE of Soultz, and 14 m. SSW of Colmar. Pop. 1,500. It possesses a cotton spinning-mill, and has 4 annual fairs.

ISENTHAL, or ISITHAL, a valley of Switzerland, in the NW part of the cant. of Uri, extending from the glacier of Geschenen to the W bank of the Waldstatter-see or lake of Lucern, a distance of about 8 m., and watered by the Iselbach. It is very narrow, and surrounded by lofty mountains; that of the Rothstok, near the head of the I., rises to the height of 10,065 ft. above sea-level. It contains fine forests and excellent pasturage, and has several iron-mines, but possesses few inhabitants.—A village of the same name is situated on the r. bank of the Iselbach, about 2 m. above its mouth.

ISEO, a district and town of Austrian Lombardy, in the gov. of Milan, delegation of Brescia, on the S bank of the lake of the same name. The district comprises 12 com., and contains a pop. of 10,213. The town is 47 m. ENE of Milan, and 12 m. NW of Brescia, on the r. bank of the lake of the same name. Pop. 1,938. It has a forge, a distillery of brandy, several flour and oil-mills, and several tanneries. It has a small port, and carries on an active trade. A fair is held once a-year, and two markets weekly for grain, cloth, and other necessaries. In the neighbouring hamlet of Cavale is a large nail manufactory.

ISEO, or SABINO (LAGO), a lake of Austrian Lombardy, in the gov. of Milan, on the confines of the delegs. of Brescia and Bergamo; at the extremity of the Val Camonica; and at an alt. of 192 metres = 629 ft. above sea-level. Its length from NNE to SSW is 15 m., and its average breadth 2 m., comprising an area of about 24 sq. m. Its greatest depth is estimated at 300 metres = 328 yds. It is traversed by the Oglio, an affluent of the Po; and has several ports, the principal of which are, towards the N, Lovere and Castro, at the mouth of the Borlezzo and Pisogne; and towards the S, Iseo and Sarnico. The banks in some parts consist of lofty cliffs, in others of hills covered with olive plantations and vineyards, and interspersed with castles, towers, and villas. Towards the S, the shores are low and liable to inundation. In a bay at the SE extremity of the lake are the islands of Monte l'Isola, S. Paolo, and Loretto. The N wind blows constantly at night on this lake, and in winter sometimes with so much violence as to render the navigation dangerous. Fish of excellent quality, especially tench, eels, pikes, and sardels of different kinds, abound in its waters, and are fished in great quantities, especially in the month of June. The trade consists chiefly in iron, grain, wine, and cattle. This lake is the *Sevinus* of the ancients.

ISER, a river of Bohemia, which descends from the SE side of the Iserberg, and about 15 m. NW of the source of the Elbe, runs through the vast boggy prairies which form the N part of the circle of Bidschow; traverses the circle of Bunzlau; and entering that of Kaurzim, unites with the Elbe on the r. bank, 5 m. SE of Brandeis. It has a total course, in a generally SW direction, of about 60 m., and flows past Turnau, Munchengrätz, and Jungbunzlau. Chalcidies are found in great numbers in the sandy channel of this river.

ISERAN (MONT), or MONTE ISERANO, a mountain of Sardinia, in the Graian Alps, on the confines of the divisions of Savoy, Turin, and Aosta, 21 m. NNE of Mont Cenis, and 33 m. SSE of Mont Blanc, in N lat. 45° 31', and E long. 7° 16'. Its height is variously estimated at 13,274 ft., and 12,168 ft. Several

large rivers take their rise in its glaciers. Of these the principal are the Isere on the W, the Orca on the E, and on the S the Arca.

ISE'RE, a frontier dep. in the SE region of France, formerly included in the prov. of Dauphiné, of which it comprises the Viennois and the Grésivaudan. It lies between the parallels of  $44^{\circ} 42'$  and  $45^{\circ} 52'$  N lat., and the meridians of  $4^{\circ} 42'$  and  $6^{\circ} 20'$  E long. On the N it is bounded by the dep. of Ain, from which it is separated by the Rhone; on the E by Savoy, from which it is separated by the Guiers; on the SE by the dep. of Hautes-Alpes; on the SW by that of Drome; and on the W by that of the Rhone. Its length from NW to SE is about 95 m.; its average breadth 40 m. Area 829,031 hectares.

*Surface.*] The surface is mountainous, especially towards the S. The Alpine chains which traverse it rise in the Grand Pelvoux to an elevation of 12,906 ft., and in the Pic-de-Belledonne, to 10,302 ft. above sea-level. The main chains which traverse the dep. divide it into three regions, one of which, sloping towards the Upper Rhone, is intersected by the Guiers and the Boubre; another slopes W to that portion of the Rhone which is comprised between Lyons and the frontiers of the dep. of Drome, and is watered by the Ozon, the Vaux, Gère, Varieze, the Sonnie, and Dolon. The third section comprises the valley of the Isère, in the S part of the dep., sloping W towards the Rhone. Some of the valleys are large, and many very fertile; that of Grésivaudan, through which the Isère flows, is one of the richest in France. There are numerous small lakes and marshes. Next to the Rhone, the chief river is the Isère.—The climate is cold and dry. W winds predominate. The annual fall of rain is estimated at 35 inches.

*Soil and productions.*] Of a total superficies of 829,031 hect., 767,722 h. were reported as under cultivation in 1835; and 795,402 h. in 1839. The arable lands were estimated in 1835 at 316,387 h.; meadows at 66,713 h.; vineyards at 27,698 h.; forests at 168,420 h.; and heaths, wastes, &c., at 171,990 h. In 1835, 2,739,120 hectolitres of grain, chiefly wheat and rye, were harvested, besides 10,771,200 h. of potatoes. The red wines of Vienne, and white wines of Cote-Saint-Andre, are of excellent quality. The produce of wine amounted in 1839 to 590,780 hectolitres, and of beet-root to 155,540 quintals. Chestnuts, almonds, and other fruits abound. The growing of silk is on the increase. In 1835, 430,256 kilog. of cocoons were raised, yielding 46,016 kilog. of raw silk. Good cavalry horses and mules are bred. In 1839, the stock of horses amounted to 30,961; mules, 10,458; asses, 3,906; black cattle, 167,060; cows, 109,399; sheep, 263,707; pigs, 44,128; goats, 33,397. The cows are good milkers; and the cheese of Sas-senage and Oissans is in repute. Poultry are reared in great numbers. In 1835, of 195,450 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 89,659 were assessed at less than 5 fr., 31,468 at from 5 to 10 fr.; and only 533 at upwards of 500 fr. The territorial revenue in 1846 amounted to 24,134,000 francs, held by 179,575 proprietaries, being an average of only 134½ fr. to each. The soil was distributed into 1,529,893 parcels or separate properties.

*Minerals, &c.*] I. is one of the richest deps. of France in respect of minerals; and mining is one of the chief occupations of the inhabitants. Gold and silver mines, it is said, were wrought till near the commencement of the present cent. At present, iron, copper, zinc, and lead are the chief metallic products; but mercury, bismuth, antimony, cobalt, anthracite and lignitic coal, sulphur, alum, marble, granite, and gypsum, are found. In 1839, 8 mines of anthracite employed 183 hands, and yielded 248,620

quint.; and 1 mine of lignite employed 190 hands, and yielded 95,000 quint. There are several large smelting furnaces, and numerous forges and steel factories. The quantity of cast-iron manufactured in 1839 was 38,153 quintals; of bar iron, 15,311 q.; and of steel, 19,625 q. Among the articles of manufacture are beet-root, sugar, paper, straw-hats, silk stuffs, coarse woollens, table, linen, leather, gloves, silk crapes, turpentine, mineral acids and chemical drugs; and liqueurs are the other chief manufactures. Lyons is the great entrepôt for the produce of Isere.

*Population.*] The pop. of this dep. in 1801 was 435,888; in 1831, 550,258; in 1841, 588,660; in 1846, 598,492. The average density of the pop., in 1846, was 73·87 per sq. kilom.; that for all France being 67·088.—In 1842, it possessed 1,608 elementary schools, attended by 69,331 pupils in common; and 16 secondary establishments, attended by 694 pupils.—It is divided into 4 arrondissements, viz., Grenoble, Saint-Marcellin, La Tour-du-Pin, and Vienne, which were subdivided in 1841 into 42 cantons, and 556 communes. Under the regime of Louis Philippe it sent 7 members to the chamber of deputies, who were elected in 1835 by 2,481 electors. It forms the dio. of the bishop of Grenoble.

ISE'RE, or ISARA, a river of Savoy and of France, belonging to the system of the Rhone, and having its source in the glaciers of Mont Iseran, in the chain of the Grecian Alps, not far from the sources of its tributary the Arco, in Savoy. It flows first 20 m. NW to St. Maurice, and then 15 m. SW to Montiers-de-Tarentaise, from which it bends NW 12 m. to Conflans, the most N point of its course; thence turning SW, it flows 22 m. to Montmeillan, where its navigation commences. Here standing on the bridge of Montmeillan, "we may see all the waters of the S of Savoy, comprising an extent of 2,000 sq. m. of the highest Alpine land in Europe, pass under our feet, in a stream not broader than the Thames at Richmond." [Bakewell.] In the upper part of its course it receives the combined streams of the Daron and the St. Jean at Montiers; those of the Arli and Doron at Conflans; and between Conflans and Montmeillan the Arc, an Alpine stream, 68 m. long, which passes St. Jean-de-Maurienne. Just below Montmeillan, the I. turns S, and crosses the French frontier, near Fort Barraux; it then gradually bends SW and W, and intersecting the centre of the dep. to which it gives name, passes Grenoble, dividing that town into two parts, and thereafter unites with the Drac, its most important tributary. From the junction of the Drac, the I. flows NW for a short distance; then turning SW, and passing St. Marcellin and Romans, it flows into the Rhone, on the l. bank, between Tournon and Valence, after a total course of 180 m., of which nearly one-half, or that part of the I. below Montmeillan, is navigable, but greatly impeded by islets. The I. is a stream of great depth. Its waters, below Montiers, are blackish, which some attribute to the debris of the slate rocks of the Tarentaise, through which it flows. It is liable to inundations, which are often attended with the most disastrous effects. These are occasioned by the rapid drainage after heavy rains or the melting of the snows, of all the higher Alps in the S of Savoy, along a waving line of 120 m. These inundations have brought down immense quantities of stones, which have covered about 30,000 acres of excellent land, between Conflans and Montmeillan. Iron, hemp, linen, woollen-cloth, and wood are shipped down the stream. Barges laden with cattle, salt, and other merchandise, ascend it from the Rhone to Grenoble and Montmeillan.

ISERLOHN, a kreis or circle and town of Prussia, in the prov. of Westphalia, and regency of Arns-

berg. The circle contains 24,340 inhabitants. The town is 18 m. W of Arnsberg, and 45 m. S of Munster. Pop. in 1846, 9,930. It is enclosed by a wall, and possesses a suburb, 3 churches—a Catholic, a Calvinist, and Lutheran—and a Latin school. It has extensive manufactories of machinery, wire, iron, and tin ware, cutlery, needles, pins, ribbon, silk-fabrics, velvet, and leather. In the environs are bleacheries, and several mines of calamine.

ISERNIA, a town of Naples, capital of a district in the prov. of Sannio, 20 m. W of Campobasso, pleasantly situated on one of the lower summits of the Apennines. Pop. 5,200. It is one of the most ancient towns in the kingdom; and previous to the earthquake in 1805, possessed a fine cathedral, numerous convents, and several fine remains of antiquity. It was in the vicinity of this town that Sylla was shut up in a defile by the Samnites. The district contains 9 cantons.

ISERTKELLY, or DYSERTKELLY, a parish in co. Galway, consisting of 2 detached sections,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  m. and 6 m. SW of Loughree, and comprising a total area of 1,894 acres. Pop. in 1831, 282; in 1851, 122.

ISERTKERRIN, a parish in co. Tipperary,  $5\frac{1}{2}$  m. ENE of Fethard. Area 1,429 acres. Pop. in 1831, 416; in 1851, 322.

ISERTLAURENCE, ISAINTLAURENCE, or INCH ST. LAURENCE, a parish in co. Limerick, 6 m. SE of Limerick. Area 2,203 acres. Pop. in 1851, 611.

ISET, a river of Russia in Asia, which has its source in the gov. of Perm, in the district and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. W of Yekaterinburg. It issues from a small lake; flows past Yekaterinburg; directs its course ESE through the districts of Kamichlov and Chadrinsk, passing in its course Dolmatov and Chadrinsk; thence it bends NE into the gov. of Tobolsk, and throws itself into the Tobol, on the l. bank, 6 m. above Jaloutorovsk, and after a course of about 300 m. Its principal affluents are the Sinara, Tetcha, Barner, and Mias on the r., and the Ikin and Iou-rioum on the l.

ISETSKOE, a lake of Russia in Asia, in the gov. of Perm, district and 8 m. NW of Yekaterinburg, 6 m. in length, and 3 m. in breadth.—Also a town in the gov. of Tobolsk, district and 45 m. WSW of Jaloutorovsk, on the l. bank of the Iset.

ISFERJAN, a town of Persia, in the prov. of Irak-Ajemi, and 70 m. S of Ispahan, on the road thence to Shiraz, and near the l. bank of the Garrum.

ISFIELD, a parish in Sussex, 2 m. SSW of Uckfield, on the Ouse. Area 1,862 acres. Pop. in 1831, 581; in 1851, 508.

ISHAM, a parish in Northamptonshire,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  m. SSE of Kettering; on a branch of the Nen. Area 1,150 acres. Pop. in 1831, 318; in 1851, 391.

ISHANTE, or YSHANTE, a commune of Belgium, in the prov. of East Flanders, dep. of Hauteu-Saint-Liévin. Pop. 80.

ISHARTMON, a parish in co. Wexford, 4 m. SW by W of Broadway. Area 965 $\frac{1}{2}$  acres. Pop. in 1831, 229; in 1851, 192.

ISHIM. See ICHIM.

ISHLAWRCOED, a hamlet in Bedwelty parish, Monmouthshire. Area 3,080 acres. Pop. in 1831, 318; in 1851, 2,639.

ISHMAEL'S (St.), a parish in the co. of Pembroke,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  m. W of Milford. Pop. in 1851, 528.

ISI, ITSISI, or Y-TCHI, a district of Japan, in the prov. of Isi, 81 m. E of Méaco.

ISIDRO (SAN), a town of La Plata, in the dep. and 12 m. NNW of Buenos-Ayres, on the r. bank of the Rio-de-la-Plata.

ISIDRO (SAN), a headland of Patagonia, on the S coast, to the NE of Cape Eroward, in Magalhaen's straits, in S lat. 53° 47', and W long. 70° 55'.

ISIDRO, or ISIDORO (SAN), a town near the S coast of the island of Milo, in the Grecian archipelago, 8 m. SW of the town of Milo.

ISIERIS, a department and com. of Belgium, in the prov. of Hainault, arrond. of Tournai. Pop. 318.

ISIGNY, a canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of Calvados, and arrond. of Bayeux. The cant. comprises 28 com. Pop. in 1831, 14,691; in 1841, 15,032.—The town is 19 m. WNW of Bayeux, and 38 m. WNW of Caen, on the l. bank of the Esques, which is crossed a little below, at the confluence of the Vire, by a handsome bridge. Pop. in 1841, 2,363. It has a small but excellent port, and carries on an extensive trade in cider, butter, salted meat, grain, and brandy, salt from the manufactory at Neuilly, and coals from the mines of Litry. It has a weekly market and 2 annual fairs.—Also a canton and commune in the dep. of the Manche, and arrond. of Mortain. The cant. comprises 11 com. Pop. in 1831, 6,340; in 1841, 6,200. The village is 11 m. W of Mortain. Pop. 372. A fair for cattle, grain, and mercery is held here once a year.

ISIKAVA, or CHY-TCHOUAN, a district of Japan, in the prov. of Kawatsi, and island of Nifon.

ISILI, an intendenza and town of Sardinia, in the prov. of Cagliari. The intendenza comprises 7 districts and 51 com., and contains 44,172 inhabitants. The town is 36 m. N of Cagliari, at the foot of a mountain, in a fine and fertile plain. Pop. 2,195. It has a manufactory of gunpowder.

ISIS, a small stream in Gloucestershire, one of the head-streams of the Thames, rising at Thames-head near the road from Cirencester to Tetbury, and flowing into Wiltshire, where it is joined by the Swill brook. See THAMES.

ISITIRGA, a town of Turkey in Europe, in Albania, in the sanj. and 27 m. N of Ochrida, and 17 m. NE of Dibra-Sipra, at the foot of Mount Vitza or Rora.

ISKARDO'H, or ISCARDO, a valley, fortress, and town of Bultistan, or Little Tibet, on the Indus. The valley or plain is an open sandy flat, 18 m. in length, and 7 m. in breadth, surrounded by enormous mountains, and at an alt. of 6,300 ft. above sea-level. The fortress is on the l. bank of the Indus, at the confluence of the Shighur, in N lat. 35° 10', and E long. 75° 27'. The rock on which it is situated rises 7,100 ft. above sea-level, and at the E extremity forms a nearly perpendicular height of 880 ft. At the opposite end it slopes abruptly to the plain; and at the height of 200 ft. is strongly fortified by walls and towers. The Indus here forms a rapid torrent, variously estimated at from 150 to 300 ft. in width. On a small rocky platform, about 300 ft. above the level of the river, is the castle of the *gylo* or sovereign of the state. It is built of stone and timber, and is strongly defended. Surrounding the base of the rock is the town, consisting of an irregular assemblage of about 150 dwellings.—The foundation of I. has been attributed to Alexander the Great, and its name traced to that of the Macedonian. According to Vigne, however, Iskardo, Skardo, or Kardo, is derived from the words *Sagara Do*, signifying 'two floods' or rivers. This fortress recently fell into the hands of Gholab Singh. See BULTI.

ISKELL, or ISHKELL (JEBEL), a mountain of Tunis, on the W side of the Benzarta lakes, 40 m. NW of Tunis.

ISKENDERUN, ISKANDERUN, SCANDEROON, or ALEXANDRETTA, a small decayed town of Syria, on the E side of the gulf of the same name, on a small bay running in SE, in N lat. 36° 10', E long. 36° 7', 25 m. NE  $\frac{1}{2}$  E of Cape Khanzir. It stands on a



small patch of sand, close to the beach, at the NE corner of a fetid stagnant swamp which stretches nearly 1 m. to the S, W, and SW; and in the midst of which the walls of the old Levant company's factory are yet standing. The present pop. does not exceed 500. It forms the natural port of Aleppo; and that through which the whole commerce of Northern Syria passes. Goods imported here are forwarded by canals to Aleppo and Bagdad. A camel-caravan takes 6 days to reach Aleppo from I. in summer, and 20 in winter; mules perform it in 3 days in summer, and 6 in winter. The government Tartar post, coming from Damascus and Aleppo, performs the journey from this place to Constantinople in 6 days; caravans, in 40 days. The distance in a direct line from I. to the Euphrates is  $101\frac{1}{2}$  m. S  $70^{\circ}$  W. The articles of export from A. are timber, silk, goats' hair, sheep's wool, gums, and beeswax. The chief produce of the interior is firewood, wood for building, vegetables, and fruit. The villages in the vicinity supply the bazaars with beans, cucumbers, turnips, pumpkins, spinach, apples, pears, peaches, pomegranates, apricots, melons, and grapes. The pasha of Egypt, while in possession of the pash. of Adana, used to obtain from 12,000 to 15,000 trees, averaging 30 ft. long, by 2 ft. square, from the forests of *Rhosus*. Of the adjacent mountains, those at the bottom of the gulf are much the highest; their summits, when covered with snow, which they are from the beginning to the middle of April, may be seen at the distance of from 50 to 60 m. They rise directly from the sea, and run in nearly a N and S direction from beyond Byass to the mountains of Beilan, comprising a distance of about 25 m., and extending easterly to the chain of mountains on the frontiers. The mountains on the S shore of the gulf take their ascent generally from about 1 m. to 2 m. from the sea, leaving a rich plain between them and it, which is nearly uncultivated. They extend from Beilan, passing Karatch, Arzus, and Karussein, to Cape Khanzir. The mountains of Byass are more richly timbered than those of Beilan, both as to variety and quantity, and the trees are of larger growth. The pine is mostly knotty, but full of turpentine. The oaks of both species are straight-grained like the American. The beech is of good, close-grained quality, but not nearly so plentiful as the other two. The linden-tree is scarce. In 1837 about 150 wood-cutters were employed on these mountains, with twice the number of trimmers and dressers; but the work was confined to the lower parts, from the difficulties of transport, and from want of roads. The distance from the sea to the place of felling is from 3 to 5 leagues; and 150 men could cut 35,000 to 40,000 trees in the year, which it would require twice the number to dress and trim, and upwards of 600, with practicable roads, to transport to the sea with buffaloes and bullocks. [*Consul's report.*] Fever of a malignant kind rages here from May to October; and the thinly inhabited mountain-coast "may be deemed the most dangerous to travel on of all the sultan's dominions," [*Walpole in 1850.*] as being the abode of lawless banditti. This state of matters is rendered worse by I. being administratively under the pasha of Adana.

The gulf of I. opens between a low flat point of Cape Karatash, or Karadash-Burnu, on the NW, and an abrupt point, Ras-el-Khanzir [*i. e.*, 'the Pig's head'], the extremity of Mount Peria or *Rhosus*, on the SE. The distance between these points is 17 m.; and the gulf extends 52 m. to the NE, with a nearly uniform breadth of 21 m. It is nearly surrounded by mountains; some rising gradually from the sea, and others from 1 to 2 m. inland; and

it receives the Jaihan or *Pyramus*, the Burnaz-su, the Delichai or *Issus*, and a number of smaller streams descending from Mounts Amanus and *Rhosus*. Between these two ranges lies the celebrated Beilan pass. It is the safest bay for ships on the coast of Syria. The harbour of I. is capable of containing from 30 to 35 sail of merchant-shipping, and is nearly protected from all winds except the N and NE.

ISKER, or SIBIR, an ancient town of Asia, which, at the period of the subjugation of Turan by the Russians, in the 16th cent., was the capital of that principality. It was situated on the Irtysh, near the place on which Tobolsk now stands.

ISKER, or ISKIR, a river of Turkey in Europe, which has its source in the mountains on the S confines of the sanj. of Sophia, and 6 m. S of Samatov; flows N past that town, and a few m. E of Sophia; bends NE, forms the boundary-line between the sanj. of Widdin and Rustchuck, and after a total course of 180 m. joins the Danube, on the r. bank between Nikopol and Nahova. It is very broad, and is difficult of navigation.

ISKER, or ISIS, a river in Brecknockshire, a tributary of the Usk.

ISKHOVSI, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Grodno, district and 32 m. SE of Novogrodek.

ISKOROSK, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Volhynia, district and 29 m. S of Ovroutch, and 54 m. N of Jitomir. It was anciently named Korosten. An earthen monument, erected by the celebrated Olga, in memory of her husband Igor I., who was killed here in 945, still exists in this place.

ISKURIA, a town of Russia in Europe, in Abkhazia, on the E coast of the Black sea, 18 m. SE of Sukgum-kalé. It was formerly the principal maritime town in the prov., but since the rise of Sukgum-kalé, its commerce has much decayed, and the town is rapidly falling into ruins. To the SW of the town is a headland of the same name, in N lat.  $42^{\circ} 47'$ .

ISLA, a river of Forfarshire and Perthshire, giving the name of Glenisla to a district and parish in the former. It rises among the highest summits-range of the Forfarshire Grampians, near the point where that co. and the shires of Perth and Aberdeen meet; and flows about 28 m. in a S, SE, and SW course through Forfarshire; and in a sinuous but prevaillingly SW direction, about 16 or 17 m. along its windings, through Perthshire; and disembogues itself into the Tay nearly opposite Kinclavin, greatly increasing the body of its water. In the upper part of its course it flows along a rocky bed, between bold and steep banks, covered in many places with natural woods, and affording some very romantic scenery. Below the narrow vale of Glenisla, it forms a cascade, called the Recky linn, a fall of 70 or 80 ft. in depth, over several ridges of broken rock.

ISLA. See ISLAY.

ISLA-DE-LA-GENTE-HERMOGA, or ISLAND OF HANDSOME PEOPLE, an island of the South Pacific, to the N of the Navigator's islands, in S lat.  $10^{\circ} 56'$ , and W long.  $170^{\circ} 13'$ , and about 20 m. in circuit. It was discovered in 1606 by Mendana, who, on attempting to land, met with such a resolute resistance by the natives—a people described by him as remarkable for their courage and personal beauty—that he was obliged to desist from the attempt.

ISLA-DE-LA-LAXA, a district of Chili, bounded on the N by that of Maulé; on the E by the Andes; on the S by Araucania; and on the W by the district of La Concepcion. It comprises an area about 120 m. in length, from the Laxa on the N, to the Biobio on the S, and 42 m. in breadth. Its capital is Santa Barbara.

**ISLA-DE-LEON**, or **SAN FERNANDO**, a judicial partido and a town of Spain, in Andalusia, in the prov. of Cadiz. The island is formed by the Santi Petri river, which divides it from the partido of Cadiz. The town is 7 m. SE of Cadiz, near the E side of the island, and on the road which runs across the famous bridge named Puente-de-Zuazo to the continent. Pop. 9,729. It is strongly fortified, and is large and well built. The principal street is 2 m. in length, and is lined on both sides with handsome shops. It has a large square, in which are the town-house and the parish-church, both fine edifices, and possesses also an extensive arsenal, a custom-house, several chapels, 2 hospitals, 3 almshouses, several convents, and an excellent marine observatory, the only one in Spain, situated in N lat.  $36^{\circ} 27' 45''$ , and W long.  $6^{\circ} 51' 54''$ . The manufacture of salt, leather, ceruse, printing types, brick, and gypsum, starch, and liquors, form the chief branches of local industry. This town is of great antiquity. In 1823 it served as an asylum for refugees during the war of independence.

**ISLA-DE-MAULE**, a district of Chili, bounded on the N by that of Maule, from which it is separated by a river of the same name; on the E by the Andes; and on the S and W by the Guanquil, by which it is separated from the districts of Chillan and Canquenes. It is 90 m. in length from E to W, and about 30 m. in breadth. Castro is its chief town.

**ISLAMABAD**, a town of Hindostan, in the prov. and 30 m. ENE of Cashmere, on the r. bank of the Jelum, at the extremity of a low hill extending from the mountains eastward. It is a large but very filthy place; and has manufactories of shawls, chintzes, and coarse cotton and woollen fabrics. The houses are built of stone and flat-roofed. The number of shops is estimated at 300. The river is here about 80 yds. wide, and is crossed by a wooden bridge; and in the vicinity is a sulphureous spring, the waters of which are held sacred. The original name of this town was Anat Nag.—Also a town in the prov. of Bengal, and cap. of the district of Chittagong, on the W side of the river of that name, 9 m. above its entrance into the bay of Bengal, and 210 m. E of Calcutta, in N lat.  $22^{\circ} 22'$ , and E long.  $91^{\circ} 42'$ . Pop. 12,000, of whom about 2,000 are of Portuguese descent. It is tolerably well built in the Bengalese style, and was formerly fortified. It contains 2 churches, an English school, and well-stocked markets, and has extensive building-docks, and manufactories of a sort of canvass from cotton. An active maritime trade is carried on in rice, salt, and articles of local manufacture. The principal imports are tortoise-shell, cowries, and cocoa-nuts. This town was originally named by the Portuguese Porto-Grande. It belonged alternately to the Afghan kings of Bengal, and rajahs of Aracan. In 1666 it was taken by the Moguls and fortified, and had the name of Chittagong substituted for that of Porto-Grande. It was unsuccessfully besieged by the English in 1689, but in 1760 was ceded to them along with the district to which it belongs.

**ISLAMCOTE**, a village and fort of Sind, in the Thurr or Indian desert, 110 m. SE of Hyderabad, in N lat.  $24^{\circ} 32'$ , and E long.  $70^{\circ} 10'$ . The fort, which is of burnt brick, is 350 yards from the village, and forms a quadrangle 210 ft. in diameter, with a single gateway; the walls are 30 ft. in height, and are defended by a tower at each angle.

**ISLAMGHUR**, or **NOHUR**, a fort in the state and 120 m. SSW of Buhawalpur, in the great Indian desert, on the road from Khanpur to Jeysulmair, in N lat.  $27^{\circ} 52'$ , and E long.  $70^{\circ} 55'$ . The fort, which is very ancient, is constructed of brick. It is 80 yards square, and is surrounded by lofty ramparts,

defended by numerous bastions. It is, however, surrounded and commanded by sand-hills.

**ISLAMNAGUR**, a town and pergunnah of Hindostan, in the prov. of Malwa, principality and 6 m. N of Bopal, in N lat.  $23^{\circ} 21'$ , and E long.  $77^{\circ} 31'$ . Its situation on the Betwah, between two affluents of that river, and enclosed on the fourth side by an impassable morass, renders it one of the strongest fortresses in India. In 1710 it was taken by Dost Mahomed.

**ISLAMPUR**, a town of Hindostan, in the presidency of Bengal, prov. and 20 m. WSW of Bahar. It contains about 3,000 houses.

**ISLAND**, or **INCHYDONY**, a parish in co. Cork. Area 2,676 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,444; in 1851, 913. It comprises an island of the same name.

**ISLANDBRIDGE**, a village in the p. of St. James, co. Dublin, on the Lifey,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. W of Dublin castle. Pop. in 1851, 617.

**ISLANDEADY**, or **ISLANDINE**, a parish  $3\frac{1}{2}$  m. NNW of Castlebar, co. Mayo. Area 24,940 acres. Pop. 4,699. It contains a lough  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. in length and 1 m. in breadth, and a peninsula of the same name.

**ISLAND-ICANE**, or **ISLAND-KANE**, a parish in the co. and 8 m. SSW of Waterford. Area 4,537 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,139; in 1851, 1,133.

**ISLAND-MAGEE**, a parish in co. Antrim, 6 m. NE by N of Carrickfergus. Area 7,036 acres. Pop. in 1831, 2,610; in 1851, 2,704. A peninsula, which forms the greater part of its area, gives the parish its name.

**ISLANDMORE**, an island in co. Mayo, in Clew bay,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  m. SW by W of Newportpratt, and about a mile in length.

**ISLANDS (BAY OF)**, an indentation of the east coast of Newfoundland, to the N of the bay of St. George, in N lat.  $49^{\circ} 20'$ , and W long.  $58^{\circ} 10'$ . It is about 18 m. from N to S, and nearly equal in breadth. It receives the Humber river on the SE, and encloses numerous small islands.—Also a bay on the NE coast of the N island of New Zealand, in  $35^{\circ} 15'$  S lat. It forms one of the finest harbours in New Zealand; surrounded by steep hills of a yellow argillaceous stone, intersected by narrow ravines, and towards the harbour forming small bays, which are inaccessible from the land. The town of Russell, on the head of the bay, at the mouth of the Kana-Kana, had a pop. of 534 in 1846; and was visited by 6,770 tons of shipping, exclusive of coasters, in that year; but the whole district suffered greatly during Heke's rebellion.

**ISLANDSHIRE**, a detached portion of the co. of Durham, to the N of Northumberland, and adjoining Berwick-upon-Tweed.

**ISLATZ**, a village of European Turkey, in Little Wallachia, district of Romanatzi, 8 m. W of Nikopoli, and 69 m. W of Craiova, at the confluence of the Aluta with the Danube. It is an entrepot for salt, and has a small port.

**ISLAY**, or **ILAY**, one of the Hebrides, lying to the W of the peninsula of Kintyre, and belonging to the co. of Argyre. It is 25 m. long from N to S; and 20 m. broad from E to W; and contains about 139,700 acres, of which 34,000 are arable; 22,300 green pasture; and 83,400 heathy pasture. On the E side the surface is hilly, and in some places wooded to the water's edge. The mountains here attain an elevation of 1,500 ft.; but the greater part of the island is flat, and, where uncultivated, covered with a fine green sward. The coast is, in general, bounded by low rocks, or by flat shores and sandy bays. At Lochindaal is a harbour for ships of considerable burden, with a quay at the v. of Bowmore. Port-nahaven is a good fishing-village, on the point of Islay nearest to Ireland,—the distance being about

7 leagues. Port-Charlotte is a thriving village of 400 inhabitants. At the NE extremity is Port-Askaig. There are several small lakes in the island, which is also well-watered by numerous small streams, the principal of which are the Sorn and the Laggan, abounding with trout and salmon. Near the centre of the island is Loch-Finlaggan, about 3 m. in circuit, with an islet of the same name in the middle. Here the Macdonalds, Lords of the Isles, resided in all the pomp of royalty, and the picturesque ruins of their castle still exist here. The island is divided into the parishes of Kilchoman, Kilarrow or Bowmore, Kilmeny, and Kildalton. A few years ago there were no fewer than 14 distilleries on this island. The whisky is considered of superior quality. The spinning of yarn was at one period extensively conducted here. No less than £10,000 worth has been exported in a year; but this trade has been annihilated by the Glasgow manufactories, and spinning is now limited to domestic consumption. But the great staple article of exportation is black cattle, of which nearly 3,000 head are sold yearly. The climate is moist; but, upon the whole, it is tolerably healthy. The quadrupeds enumerated by Mr. Pennant, besides the domestic animals, are weasels, otters, hares, and fallow-deer. The birds are eagles, peregrine-falcons, moor-fowl, ptarmigans, woodcocks, red-breasted geeseanders, wild geese and ducks, herons, &c. The fish are cod, herrings, plaice, smears, dab, large dabs, mullets, ballens, lumpfish, &c. I. has mines of lead which have been long wrought; copper, manganese, and graphite occur. There are also large quantities of that ore of iron called bog-ore, of the concrete kind; and below it, strata of vitriolic mudic. Near the veins of lead are found barytes and emery. Gaelic is the general language of the common people; but English is well-understood, and taught in all the schools. I. contained in 1801, 6,821; in 1821, 11,008; in 1831, 14,982; in 1851, 15,901. There is a post four times, and steam-conveyance twice a-week to I. The passage from Tarbert to Port-Askaig is usually made in four hours.

**ISLAY SOUND**, the narrow channel betwixt Islay and Jura. It is little more than 1 m. in width; but its navigation is dangerous from the rapidity of its tides and the cross and short seas which occur here.

**ISLAY WATER**, a stream of Lower Canada, which has its source in Buckland township, and flows into the Etchemin, in the township of Frampton.

\*. For names beginning with *Isle* not found amongst the following, see *Ile*.

**ISLE**, a river of France, which has its source in the dep. of the Haute-Vienne, cant. and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. SE of Nexon; passes through the dep. of the Dordogne, in which it bathes the waters of Exideuil, Perigueux, Astier, Mucidan, and Montpont; flows thence into the dep. of the Gironde, and after a course in a generally WSW direction, of 153 m., joins the Dordogne, on the r. bank, at Libourne. Its principal affluents are the Haute-Vézère on the l., and on the r. the Dronne. It has been rendered navigable to Perigueux.

**ISLE**, a village of Hancock co., in the state of Maine, U. S., 73 m. ESE of Augusta, on an island of the Atlantic, S of Deer island.

**ISLE (L')**, a river which has its source in Upper Canada, in the township of Roxborough, and traverses the township of Kenyon; entering Lower Canada, it passes through the township of Newton, the location of Lt. Cot. de-Longueuil and New Longueuil, and falls into the St. Lawrence in the S of Soularge, at Côteau-du-Lac, and a little below Lake St. Peter.

**ISLE-ABBOTS**, a parish in Somersetshire,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  m.

N by W of Ilminster, on the Isle. Area 1,935 acres. Pop. in 1831, 380; in 1851, 437.

**ISLE-BREWERS**, a parish in Somersetshire, 5 m. SW of Langport, on the Isle. Area 1,243 acres. Pop. in 1831, 254; in 1851, 360.

**ISLE-AUX-CERFS**. See **STAG ISLAND**.

**ISLE-AUX-COUDRES**, an island and seignory of Lower Canada, in the co. of Saguenay, about 2 m. from the N shore of the St. Lawrence, nearly opposite the bay of St. Paul. It is about 5 leagues in circumference, low near the shore, but gradually rising towards the centre, and possessing great fertility. It forms a parish, and has a church and parsonage-house. The principal mineral production of the island is the garnet of the Cap-à-l'Aigle.

**ISLE OF DOGS**. See **DOGS**.

**ISLE-DE-LA-FOURCHE**. See **NICOLET (Seignory)**.

**ISLE-JESUS**, a seignory of Lower Canada, in the co. of Terrebonne, separated from the mainland by the river St. Jean or Jesus, and from the island of Montreal on the NW by the Riviere-des-Prairies. It is 21 m. in length, and 6 m. at its greatest breadth, and is in its entire extent level, fertile, and well-cultivated. It possesses excellent roads, and is connected by several ferries with the mainland and adjacent islands. It contains 3 parishes. The houses are mostly built of stone.

**ISLE-LA-MOTT**, an island of Lake Champlain, Grand Isle co., in the state of Vermont, U. S., 13 m. W of St. Albans. Pop. in 1840, 435.

**ISLE-ROUSSE (L')**, or **ISOLA-ROSSA**. See **ILE ROUSSE (L')**.

**ISLE ST. PAUL**, a seignory of Lower Canada, in an island of the same name, in the St. Lawrence, a little above the island of Montreal.

**ISLE OF SHOALS**, a group of islands, 8 in number, in the Atlantic, off the coast of the states of New Hampshire and Maine. The largest, Star island, comprises an area of 350 acres, and constitutes the township of Gosport. They are inhabited chiefly by fishermen.

**ISLE OF WHITHORN**, a village and small seaport in the parish of Whithorn, on the E coast of Wigtonshire, 2 m. N of the promontory of Burghhead, and 3 m. SE of Whithorn. It stands at the head of a small bay, which is almost land-locked by an islet  $\frac{1}{2}$  a mile long, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a mile broad, lying across its mouth. The harbour is, in consequence, well-sheltered and safe, and possesses advantages of position which might apparently be turned to account. Pop. in 1851, 495.

**ISLES-SUR-SUIPPE**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Marne, cant. of Bourgogne. Pop. 622. It has manufactories of chintzes and shawls.

**ISLE OF WIGHT**. See **WIGHT (ISLE OF)**.

**ISLEBECK-CARLTON**, or **CARLTON-MINIOTT**, a chapelry in the N. R. of Yorkshire. Area 1,555 acres. Pop. in 1851, 319.

**ISLEBOROUGH**, a township of Waldo co., in the state of Maine, 54 m. E of Augusta, consisting of a large and several smaller islands in Penobscot river, opposite Northport and Lincolnville. It has several good harbours. Pop. in 1840, 777.

**ISLEHAM**, a parish in Cambridge,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  m. N of Newmarket. Area 5,211 acres. Pop. in 1851, 2,236.

**ISLET (L')**, a county of Lower Canada, in the district of Quebec, bounded on the NE by the co. of Kamouraska; on the NW by the St. Lawrence; and on the SE by the S boundary of the prov. It comprises an area of 3,034 sq. m., the central point of which is in N lat.  $46^{\circ} 40' 30''$ , and W long.  $69^{\circ} 52'$ . It is intersected by numerous rocky ridges, but contains much good land, and is abundantly watered by rivers and lakes. Of the former, the principal are the



Riviere-du-Sud and its branches, and the river St. John. Pop., chiefly French Canadians, 12,777. This co. is remarkable for the number of handsome villages which it contains. It has also a seignory of the same name, bounded in front by the St. Lawrence. It is watered by the Bras St. Nicholas and several small streams, and has a good deal of valuable timber. It derives its name from a point of land on which is a telegraph station, and which is insulated at high water.

**ISLETTA**, a town of New Mexico, in the co. of Bernalillo, on the W side of the Rio Grande, 9 m. from Peralta. It is an extensive place, with large vineyards in the vicinity.

**ISLEWORTH**, a parish and village of Middlesex, 9 m. WSW of London, on the W bank of the Thames, between Brentford and Richmond. Area of p. 3,128 acres. Pop. in 1831, 5,590; in 1851, 7,007. The village consists of one principal street. In the vicinity are numerous elegant villas.

**ISLEY-WALTON**, a chapelry in Leicestershire, 18 m. NW of Leicester. Area 410 acres. Pop. 72.

**ISLIKON**, a village of Switzerland, in the cant. of Thurgau, bail, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. SW of Frauenfeld, on the road from that town to Zurich. It has a manufactory of chintzes.

**ISLINGTON**, an extensive parish and village, or metropolitan street district, in Middlesex, formerly 2 m. NW of London, but now absorbed in and forming part of the metropolis. The village is situated between the channels of the little rivers Fleet and Walbrook, which mark its W and E borders in the course of their subterraneous passage to the Thames. Besides I., the p. comprises the hamlets of Battlebridge, Upper and Lower Holloway, Highbury, Ball's-Pond, part of Newington-Green, Kingsland-Green, and City Gardens. Area 3,127 acres. Pop. in 1801, 10,212; in 1831, 37,316; in 1851, 95,329. In this p. are several extensive manufactories for white-lead, floor-cloths, furs, paste-board, &c. A cattle market on an extensive scale was erected here in 1833, at an expense of £100,000. It consists of a square, containing an area of about 15 acres, enclosed by a brick wall 10 ft. in height, and comprising an area of 22 acres. Sheds 800 ft. long are erected on the four sides of the square, the roofs resting behind on the walls, and interiorly on strong piers. In the centre is a circus 150 ft. in diam., constituting a kind of exchange, and affording accommodation for the buyers and the clerk of the market. This magnificent mart, calculated to contain 12,000 oxen and calves, 40,000 sheep and lambs, and 1,000 pigs, &c., was opened in April 1836. The Regent's canal passes through this p. by a tunnel 900 yds. in length, under the High-street and the New river, and having on its banks convenient wharfs and warehouses. The Northern and Eastern railway runs along the E side of the p. A considerable part of the course of the New river extends through this p. Near the SW side of the v of I. is Sadler's wells, first so called from its Spa-waters, discovered in 1683 by one Sadler. Here are also several noted taverns and tea-gardens. The situation of I. is healthy, and the salubrity of the air and its vicinity to the metropolis has long rendered it a favourite retreat for the citizens; indeed, until its close conjunction with the city, it was one of their principal rural haunts, and as early as the reign of Henry II., was noted as the scene of public recreation, where wrestling, casting quoits, shooting at butts, and other athletic pastimes were practised.

**ISLIP**, a parish in Northamptonshire, 1 m. WNW of Thrapston, on the Nen. Area 1,370 acres. Pop. in 1831, 562; in 1851, 594.—Also a parish and village in Oxfordshire, on the Ray, near its confluence with the Cherwell. Area 1,960 acres. Pop. 744.

**ISLIP**, a township of Suffolk co., in the state of New York, U. S., 191 m. SE of Albany, and bounded on the S by the Atlantic. Its surface is level, and its soil light and sandy. Pop. in 1840, 1,909.

**ISLUGA**, a village in the Peruvian prov. of Tarapaca, and dep. of Arequipa, near the NE bank of a lake of the same name, on the Cordillera-de-los-Andes, in S lat:  $19^{\circ} 12' 30''$ , W long.  $68^{\circ} 41' 45''$ , at an alt. of between 13,000 and 14,000 ft. above sea-level. The lake is fed by a good-sized stream, which descends from the mountain of Carabaya on the NNE, passes the town, and discharges its waters by a stream which runs E into the plain of Sitani. About 5 m. to the NW of the v. is the extensive volcano of I., to which Mr. Bollaert assigns an approximate elevation of from 17,000 to 18,000 ft. above sea-level. In the hollows in the vicinity of the v. a few potatoes and a little millet are with difficulty grown; and some scanty pasturage, fed by occasional rains, is found as high as from 14,000 to 15,000 ft. A few ostriches, plovers, bismachas, and the condor, are occasionally seen near I., and the puma sometimes commits ravages on the young llamas. To the E of I. commences an extensive salt plain, which, it is reported, extends to near Potosi, with a breadth of from 3 to 8 leagues. It is covered with an incrustation of salt of from 5 to 10 inches in thickness.

**ISLY**, or **IZLI**, a small river of Algeria, rising within the frontiers of Morocco; flowing in a N and NE course past Ushda and Lala-Marnia, between which places it crosses the W frontier of the prov. of Oran; and falling into the sea about 24 m. WNW of Tlemsan. Marshal Bugeaud having defeated the Morocco troops in the vicinity of this river, on 14th August 1844, was created duke of I.

**ISMAIL**, or **ISMAILOV**, a large and strong town of Bessarabia, on the N side of the Kilian arm of the Danube, about 33 m. from the Black sea, in N lat.  $45^{\circ} 21'$ , E long.  $28^{\circ} 50'$ ; 20 m. WSW of Kilia-Nova; 30 m. E of Galatz. It is 1 m. in length, and a  $\frac{1}{2}$  m. in breadth; and is surrounded by a moat and earthen rampart. The latter is in general 18 ft. in height; in some parts 25 ft. The moat is from 30 to 40 ft. in depth. The breadth or shorter side of the town lies along the river; the longer side, towards the land. The town carries on a considerable trade in the products of Moldavia; and the Armenians settled here have thriving manufactures of leather and shagreen.—It has a considerable export trade in corn, hides, and tallow. The exports from I. in 1839 amounted to 2,793,244 rubles in value. This place is memorable in history for its siege by the Russians in 1790. Its garrison was numerous, and a large quantity of military stores as well as treasure had been collected in it as a place of security. The Russian army having made little progress in the siege during the autumn, Suwarrow was sent to direct the operations, with orders to effect the reduction of the place at any sacrifice. On this, as on other occasions, he sent, when apparently unprepared, a peremptory summons to the Turkish garrison to surrender, that he might make the opposing general consider him in the light of a madman. At last, on the night of the 22d of December, he called together his officers, apprised them that the assault was to be made forthwith, reminded them of their past exploits, and desired them to repeat his words to the soldiers. At 5 o'clock in the morning of next day, the troops, in number 40,000, advanced in 9 columns, 6 on the land side, and 3 from the shipping in the river. The Turks were on their guard, and after allowing the assailants to come within 100 yds., opened a dreadful fire of grape-shot; but the Russians pushed on, filled the moat with their fascines, and applying their scaling-ladders, attempted to climb the ramparts. The regu-

lar troops succeeded; the Cossacks, unable to resist the Turkish sabre, were at first driven from the walls, and fell by hundreds into the moat; but being supported by regulars, the whole Russian army was formed on the ramparts by 8 o'clock. A close conflict then began, and six hours were passed in fighting and in carnage before I. fell completely into the hands of the Russians. Of the Turks about 20,000 were killed, and 10,000 made prisoners; the Russians lost 5,000 men on the day of capture, and twice that number in the previous operations. The town being given up to pillage, the inhabitants were exposed to outrage and massacre during three days. Russia now maintains a considerable garrison here; and the flotilla of the Danube is stationed at the foot of the walls.

**ISMALIIYAH**, a town of Persia, on the l. bank of the Karun. 25 m. below Ahwaz.

**ISMANNING**, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of Upper Bavaria, 10 m. NNE of Munich. Pop. 716.

**ISMER (SAINT)**, a commune and village of France, in the dep. of Isere, cant. and 6 m. NNE of Grenoble. Pop. 1,325.

**ISMID**, or **ISNIKMID**, the ancient *Nicomedia*, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the sanj. of Kodja-Ili, finely situated on the side of a hill rising from the gulf of the same name, 55 m. direct distance ESE of Constantinople, and 25 m. S of the nearest point of the Black sea coast; in N lat.  $40^{\circ} 47' 40''$ , E long.  $29^{\circ} 53' 30''$ . [*Ainsworth*.] It is built principally of wood; and contains about 700 families [*Leake*], 30,000 inhabitants [*Chesney*]; and is a place of considerable traffic. It was originally founded by Olbia, and rebuilt by Nicomedes I., king of Bithynia, who made it his capital. The wealth of the East was concentrated upon it, until it was "inferior only to Rome, Alexandria, and Antioch, in extent or populousness." [*Gibbon*.] In the reign of Diocletian it became the metropolis of the Roman empire, an honour which it maintained till the building of Constantinople. "An old church," says Kinneir, "is all that is left of the ancient *Nicomedia*." The country to the N and NE of I., and between it and the Black sea, is covered with magnificent forests. See **SABANJAH**.

**ISMID**, **IZMID**, or **NICOMEDIA (GULF OF)**, the eastern prolongation of the sea of Marmora, the ancient *Olbianus* or *Astacenus sinus*. It stretches from the meridian of  $29^{\circ} 24'$ , 30 m. E; is of very irregular contour; and varies in breadth from 2 to 8 m. At its NE extremity stands the town of Ismid. Its shores, especially at its W end, are eminently beautiful, presenting on either side "abrupt capes and woody promontories, with villages upon the sides of the mountains, and corn-fields and vineyards to their very tops" [*Leake*], and an abundant sprinkling of evergreens, amongst which the most prevalent is the valonia. Near the v. of Malsum, on the N side, opposite a tongue of land called the Dil, [*i.e.* 'Tongue,'] projecting  $2\frac{1}{2}$  m. from a range of precipitous mountains on the S side, is a convenient ferry across the gulf of about 2 m. in width. A river bearing the name of the Dil, or Kirk-Getschid, descending from the N side of the Samanlu-Dagh, in several head-streams, flows S into the gulf, at the town of Ersek or Hersek, near the base of the tongue of land. This stream Major Leake identifies with the ancient *Draco*; and he regards the Dil or Tongue to have been formed by the alluvial deposit of the *Draco*, whose impetuosity and winding course are noticed by Procopius.—Also a small town of Caramania, in the sanj. of Akshehr, on the Yalakchai.

**ISNALLOZ**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 12 m. NNE of Grenada, on a small river. Pop. 8,000.

**ISNEAUVILLE**, a village of France, in the dep. of Seine-Inferieure, cant. of Darnetal, 4 m. NNE of Rouen. Pop. 1,000.

**ISNEBOL**, a village of Turkey, in the sanj. and 65 m. NW of Sophia, on the r. bank of the Timok.

**ISNIK**, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the sanj. of Kodja-Ili, finely situated at the head or E extremity of a lake of the same name, the ancient *Ascanius*, 31 m. direct distance SSW of Ismid, at the head of the gulf of Ismid. It is now only a rude village of long lanes and mud walls, occupying the site of the ancient *Antigonion* and *Nicea*; but the ruins of mosques, baths, and houses, show it to have been once, even under Turkish sway, a place of importance. The old ivy-mantled walls on the side next the lake, which they skirt for 2 m. [*Dallaway*], are "in high preservation." [*Keppel*.] Their construction resembles that of the walls of Constantinople, with which they are coeval. They are of thin brick and courses of marble, having frequent square towers. Some of these are entirely Roman. A Roman aqueduct still serves to supply the town with water.—I. is celebrated in the *Jahan Numa* on account of its ancient fortifications, its markets, mosques, baths, colleges, and manufactures of coloured earthenware; and in ecclesiastical history for its council held A. D. 325, in which the Arian heresy was debated.—The lake of I., the ancient *Ascanius sinus*, is intersected by the parallel of  $40^{\circ} 17' N$  lat., and the meridian of  $29^{\circ} 36' E$  long. It is an irregularly shaped basin, about 18 m. long, and 7 m. in its greatest breadth; and is surrounded on three sides by steep woody slopes, behind which, to the SW, rise the snowy summits of the Olympus range. The nearer and lower ranges are covered with ilex and other evergreens; and at the head of the lake lies a well-cultivated plain, with plantations of olives, mulberries, vines, and almonds, and intersected by some small streams flowing to it in a SW course from the skirts of the Gok-Dagh. At its W extremity it discharges itself by a fine stream into the head of the gulf of Mudania, which is 11 m. distant. The lake abounds with fish; but its waters are so strongly impregnated with nitre as not to be drinkable.

**ISNIKMID**. See **ISMID**.

**ISNY**, a small town of Wurtemberg, in the bail. of Wangen, and 46 m. S of Ulm. It is walled, and has 3 suburbs. Pop. 2,000.

**ISOGLU**, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the pasli. of Diarbekir, 24 m. ESE of Malatia, on the l. bank of the Euphrates.

**ISOLA**, a town of Austrian Illyria, situated on an island lying between Capo d'Istria and Pirano, 7 m. S of Capo d'Istria. Pop. 3,430.—Also a town of Naples, in Abruzzo-Ultra-Ima, 12 m. S of Teramo. Pop. 1,000.—Also a small town of Piedmont, 4 m. S by W of Asti, near the Tanaro. Pop. 2,000.—Also a town of Naples, in the Terra-di-Lavoro, on a small island formed by the river Garigliano, 5 m. SW of Soria. Pop. 2,600.—Also a town of Naples, in the prov. of Calabria-Ultra-2da, cant. and 10 m. S of Cotrone, at the foot of Monte Stella. Pop. 2,800.

**ISOLA BELLA**. See **BORROMEAN ISLES**.

**ISOLA-DELLA-SCALA**, a small but well-built town of Austrian Lombardy, in the Veronese, 13 m. S of Verona, and  $13\frac{1}{2}$  m. NE of Mantua, on the Taro. It has a large Gothic church. Pop. 2,600.

**ISOLA-DI-GORGONA**, a small barren island or rather rock of the Tuscan sea, nearly opposite Leghorn, and about 17 m. from the coast.

**ISOLA-DOVARESE**, a town of Austrian Lombardy, in the prov. and 24 m. W of Mantua. Pop. 1,600.

**ISOLA-GROSSA**, an island of the Adriatic, on the coast of Dalmatia, belonging to the district of Zara. It is about 30 m. long from SE to NW; and 2 m. broad; and is of considerable fertility, but destitute of fresh water. Pop. 12,000. The chief exports are oil and wine, and fish.

**ISOLATA**, a small town of Austrian Lombardy, in the prov. and 9 m. SSW of Verona.

**ISOLA-PORCARIZZA**, a small town of Austrian Lombardy, in the prov. and 15 m. SE of Verona, near the Adige. Pop. 1,700.

**ISOLA ROSSA**. See **ILE ROUSSE**.

**ISOLETTE** (CAPE), or **RAS-JEZIRAH**, a promontory on the coast of Arabia, in N lat.  $18^{\circ} 58' 28''$ , E long.  $57^{\circ} 51' 7''$ . It is of limestone formation. To the W of it is a small bay, affording good anchorage except under a SSW wind.—*Haines*.

**ISOLINO**, the smallest of the Borromean islands, in Lago Maggiore.

**ISONA**, a small town of Spain, in the prov. and 48 m. NNE of Lerida. Pop. 900. Coal is wrought in the vicinity.

**ISONZO**, a river of Illyria, which rises on the S flank of Mount Terglou; flows through the W part of the circle of Goritz; near Aquileia divides into two arms, called the Isonzato and the Sdobba, which, after enclosing the island of Morosina, unite and flow into the gulf Trieste, by the Bocca-di-Sdobba, at a point 15 m. WNW of Trieste. It has a prevailing W course of about 60 m. Its principal affluents are the Torre on the r.; and the Idria and the Wippach on the l. It is subject to rapid swellings.

**ISPAGNAC**. See **HISPAGNAC**.

**ISPAHAN**, or **ISFAHAN**, [written **ASP-HAN**, **SPAHAN**, and **SEPAHAN**, by native historians,] a large city of Persia, in the prov. of Irak-Ajemi, 211 m. S of Teheran, situated in the central part of an oval plain, measuring 12 m. by 8 m., and enclosed by a range of mountains of serrated outline, in  $32^{\circ} 39' 44''$  N lat., and  $51^{\circ} 44' 37''$  E long., according to Fraser, not in  $32^{\circ} 25' 5' 25''$  N lat., and  $51^{\circ} 50' 5' 25''$  E long., as Kinneir—who has adopted its lat. from Kaempfer—states. It was the capital of Persia under the Saffavian dynasty; but is no longer the magnificent city so amply described by Chardin, who believed it to be as populous as London, then as now the most populous city in Europe. I. formerly extended 3 m. along the S banks of the river Zenderud, or Zenderud [*Chesney*], which, descending from the Bakhtiyari mountains, about 80 or 90 m. W of I., is here about 600 ft. broad. The best view of it is obtained when coming from the S: the groves, avenues, and spreading orchards, with which it abounds, concealing the ruins of this once famed capital, whose palaces, cupolas, minarets, pigeon-towers, and groves, appear scattered about "in grand and lyric confusion." [*De Bode*.] A nearer view, however, dispels the illusion; and the traveller goes for miles through deserted streets, untenanted houses, ruined buildings, and silent squares. The once magnificent Maidan or hippodrome, 490 yds. long by 166 yds. broad, now no longer displays the bounding coursers, and the gazing multitudes enjoying the scene. Of all the trees that surrounded it, not one is remaining: the canals are empty; the houses which encompassed it, void of inhabitants, and their very doors blocked up; so that nothing but dead arches are now seen round the whole area. The bazaars are untenanted, and fast crumbling into ruins; and the great bazaar, once illuminated by 50,000 lamps, and where the whole area was filled with tents, is only lit up here and there by some solitary lamps, the whole business being confined to one corner. The large spaces which served as avenues to the city have been converted into gardens; and one may travel for three hours on country roads which were once so many streets leading to the centre of the city. The Chehel-Sittu fronts the SW side of the great Maidan. The gate of Ali, which opens into the palace from the Maidan, is one of the most perfect pieces of brick-work to be seen in all Persia. Over the great entrance it rises to the elevation of

several stories; and the flights of steps which lead to it are formed of beautiful porcelain. The roof of the chamber over the gate is sumptuously gilt and carved, and supported by 18 lofty octagonal pillars, once emblazoned in gold. It is open on all sides but one. The famous bridges over the Zenderud into the Sheher-bagh, though now deserted, are still unimpaired, all speaking of the gorgeous populous past. The bridge of Julfa, connecting the city with the Armenian quarter, on the r. bank, is 360 paces long, by 13 paces broad. It is built of hewn stone and brick, and is composed of 23 arches, above each of which are ranged 3 smaller ones, with a covered gallery on both sides. The streets of I. are narrow, winding, and irregular. The houses are only one story in height; but are generally composed of so many compartments that they occupy a considerable area. They are built of brick or of earth, and their uniformity in height and colour produces a dull appearance. Their entrances too are generally mean and low. Of the royal mosque of I., Buckingham says:—"The mosque was crowded at noon with worshippers, perhaps to the number of 2,000; some of whom offered up their prayers alone in silence, while others ranged themselves behind imams, or leaders, and gave their devotions all this public solemnity of union. Taken altogether, I have never yet seen, nor ever expect again to see, any Mohammedan temple so truly magnificent in all its parts, as the royal mosque of I." I. contains about 30 inhabited colleges, some of them large and flourishing; and the number of teachers and students may altogether amount to 6,000 or 7,000. The Arabic laws and literature, the Mahomedan laws and theology, are studied; but I. is chiefly famous as a school for metaphysics and philosophy. [*Mirza Ibrahim*.]

In 1472 Barbaro estimated the pop. of I. at 150,000; Kinneir estimates it at 200,000; Dupré at only half that number; Morier, in 1812, reckoned it at only 60,000; and Olivier at 50,000 in 1796; while Colonel Chesney raises it to 150,000 at the present period. The pop. of I. are characterized by the author of *Sketches of Persia* as an active, industrious people. "They are considered as the best manufacturers and the worst soldiers in Persia. But, whatever may be their deportment in the field of battle, they are remarkable for the boldness of their language in the field of argument, and have great confidence in their ready wit and talent for repartee. At I. almost every man above the very lowest order can read and write, and artisans and shopkeepers are often as familiar as those of the higher ranks with the works of their favourite poets. The love of such learning seems, in some of the youth of this city, to degenerate into a disease. These *Talib-oil-ilm* ['seekers of science'], as the students are called, may be seen in crowds round the gates, or within the walls of its college, reciting stanzas, or discussing obscure dogmas or doctrines in their works on philosophy or religion; and they often become, from such habits, unfitted for every other pursuit in life. The merchants of Persia form a distinct class. I had now seen those of Abusheher, Shiraz, and I., and found their general character nearly the same. So long as they have no concern with state affairs, and accept of no employment from government, they enjoy considerable security. The plunder of a merchant, without some pretext, would shake all confidence, and be fatal to that commerce from which a great proportion of the public revenue is derived; the most tyrannical monarchs, therefore, have seldom committed so impolitic an act of injustice. But this class have suffered so severely in the late revolutions of the country, that they continue to act with great caution. They are not only very circumspect



in their dealings, but, like wary diplomatists, every merchant has a cipher known only to himself and his correspondents. By this means they receive and convey that intelligence which is essential to give safety to their speculations. Some few make a display of their wealth; but in general, their habits are not merely frugal, but penurious. This disposition often increases with age to a degree that would hardly be credited, if we had not similar instances in our own country."

The manufactures of I. consist of all kinds of woven fabrics, brocades, satins, and silks; calicoes, chintzes, and other cotton goods, manufactured from the plant that grows in the neighbourhood; gold and silver trinkets, paper and paper boxes, pen-cases, book-covers, beautifully ornamented fire-arms, sword-blades, glass, and earthenware. There is no regular bazaar for books, but manuscripts are procured by the delals or brokers; and pictures very neatly executed in water colours, and some in oil, on canvass, are offered for sale in the bazaars. Some of these are of a very licentious description. The merchants of I. have capitals embarked in trade of from 80,000 to 150,000 tomauns, and control in a great degree the whole trade of Persia, and even considerably affect that of Hindostan, I. being the chief emporium in Persia, and on the great line of mercantile communication with Cabul, China, and India.

*History.* I. appears to have been the *Aspadana* of Ptolemy, but was not then a city of any consideration. We know that it was a considerable city in the reign of the caliph Al Mamun in A. D. 811, from some Arabian dirhems, struck at it the same year, and found on the coast of the Baltic in 1722. In the 10th cent., according to Ibn Haukel, it consisted of 2 cities, Yahudiah, or 'the Jews' town,' and Medina, or 'the city,' and was then the most flourishing city in Irak. It is almost the concurrent opinion of oriental historians and geographers that Yahudiah was a colony of captive Jews sent thither by Bochtansir or Nebuchadnezzar; and the tradition may be true, though the date be erroneous, as Media was not then a province, but an independent kingdom. For a short time during the decline of the Seljukian dynasty, I. was the cap. of their dominions. It was again made the royal residence by Shah Ismail, the first prince of the Safavian dynasty, who called it Dar Assultana, or 'the Royal seat.' But I. owed its chief grandeur to his great grandson, Shah Abbas; who adorned it with the Dowlat Khana, or 'royal palace,' called by the Persians Chehel-el-Situn, or 'the forty pillars,' the royal mosque, the Hippodrome a noble garden divided into four quarters, and a park of 1,000 acres for the reception of wild animals. Three principal suburbs were also erected by his orders and annexed to it, called respectively, Abbasabad, belonging to the natives of Tauris, Ghehrabad, or 'the residence of the Ghebrs or Magians,' and Julfa, 'the residence of the Armenians.' The two former of these suburbs no longer exist. Its prosperity, however, received a terrible check during the invasion of Timur. That formidable conqueror, in 1387, took I., and contented himself at first with levying a large contribution on the inhabitants. Learning, however, that a nocturnal insurrection was preparing by the inhabitants, he poured out upon them the full measure of his vengeance, ordering an indiscriminate massacre, in which 70,000 are said to have perished. The advantageous situation of the place, however, enabled it soon to revive; and the early Sophia, though they did not make it the cap. of their empire, exerted themselves to restore it to its former prosperity. In 1722, it was taken by the Afghans, and many of its most superb edifices entirely destroyed by those barbarous invaders. In 1727, it was retaken by Nadir Shah; but nothing was done by that conqueror to restore its former prosperity. Since that time I. has never been a royal residence, the recent sovereigns of Persia having preferred the more northern cities, particularly Teheran. I., therefore, has gone gradually more and more into decay, and presents only the wreck of what it formerly was. One may now ride for miles amid its ruins. It is still, however, a great and magnificent city.

**ISPEGNY**, a village of France, in the dep. of the Basses-Pyrénées, cant. and 1½ m. W of St. Etienne-de-Baigorry, at the foot of a mountain in which is a mine of copper.

**ISPER**, a town of Austria, in the district below the Ens, and circle of Mannhartsberg, 29 m. WSW of Mautern, in a valley, on the r. bank of a river of the same name, an affluent of the Danube.

**ISPICA**, a narrow and tolerably fertile valley in Sicily, between Spaccaformo and Modica. Its sides are excavated into innumerable grottoes, which are

inhabited by a sturdy semi-civilized race of peasants, who depend in considerable part for their subsistence on the fruit of the walnut-trees, myrtles, arbutuses, dwarf olives, oaks, and brambles, with which the country is overrun.—*Smyth.—Colt Hoare.*

**ISPINGLEE**, a village of Beluchistan, in the Bolan pass, 12 m. ESE of Mustung, and 65 m. NNE of Kelat, on the road thence to Shawl. Pop., consisting of Beluchis, 2,000.

**ISPOURE**, a village of France, in the dep. of the Basses-Pyrénées, cant. and less than a mile N of St.-Jean-Pied-de-Port. Pop. 450. Copper and malachite are found in the adjacent mountain of Aradoy.

**ISPUK**, or **ESPAKE**, a town of Persia, in the prov. of Kohistan, 50 m. NNE of Tubbus.

**ISPUNGLI**, a village of Beluchistan, 4 m. SE of Shawl or Quitta, and on the road thence to Kelat.

**ISRAEL**, a township of Preble co., in the state of Ohio, U. S. It is well-watered, and very productive. Pop. in 1840, 1,547.

**ISRAEL (CAPE)**, a headland of Arabia, in Yemen, on the Arabian gulf, to the SSE of the island of Kameran, and between Lohia and Hodeida, in N lat. 15° 12', E long. 42° 18'.

**ISRAELS**, a small river in the state of New Hampshire, U. S., which has its source in the White mountains, and flows into the Connecticut river at Lancaster.

**ISSAC**, or **ISSAC-DE-MONTREAL**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Dordogne, and cant. of Villamblarde, 13 m. N of Bergerac. Pop. 1,043.

**ISSAICA**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Pedro-do-Rio-Grande, and district of Alegrete, and which falls into the Ibicui, on the l. bank.

**ISSARLES**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Ardeche, and cant. of Concouron, 26 m. NNW of Argentières, on the r. bank of the Loire. Pop. 1,422. It has 2 annual cattle fairs.

**ISSE**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Loire-Inferieure, and cant. of Moisdon-la-Rivière, 8 m. SSW of Chateaubriand, on the r. bank of the Don. Pop. 1,602. It has an annual cattle fair.

**ISSEAUX (FORET D')**, a forest of France, in the dep. of the Basses-Pyrénées, cant. of Aramits, 15 m. SSW of Oleron. It affords excellent timber, and near it are mines of plumbago and copper, and beds of marble.

**ISSEHOVED**, or **IDSEHOVED**, a headland of Denmark, at the N extremity of the island of Samsøe, in N lat. 55° 58', E long. 10° 31'.

**ISSELBURG**, a town of Prussia, in the prov. of the Rhine, regency of Dusseldorf, circle and 6 m. N of Rees. Pop. in 1837, 847.

**ISSEL'S (Str.)**, a parish in Pembrokeshire, 3 m. N of Tenby, in Carmarthen bay. Pop. 1,784.

**ISSENDOLUS**, or **ISSENDOLUS-L'HÔPITAL**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Lot, cant. of La-Chapelle-Marival, 17 m. NW of Figeac. Pop. 1,058. It has 4 annual cattle-fairs.

**ISSENGEAUX**. See **YSSINGEAUX**.

**ISSENHEIM**, or **ISENEN**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Haut-Rhin, and cant. of Soultz. Pop. 1,214. It has a cotton spinning-mill.

**ISSEPST**, a village of France, in the dep. of the Lot, and cant. of Livernon, 8 m. NW of Figeac. Pop. 615. It has 6 annual fairs.

**ISSER**, a river of Algiers, formed by the junction of the Zagwan with the Zeitoun, at the NW part of the plain of Hamza, which, flowing N, falls into the Mediterranean at Sarab-Velrah, and 30 m. E of Algiers, after a total course of 40 m.

**ISSERTAUX**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Puy-de-Dôme, cant. of Vic-le-Comte, and 19 m. ESE of Clermont-Ferrand. Pop. 1,655.

**ISSEVERA**, a village of Turkey in Europe, in Macedonia, in the sanj. and 40 m. SE of Salonika, and near the l. bank of the Ormilia.

**ISSEY (Sr.)**, a parish in Cornwall, 3 m. SSE of Padstow. Area 4,865 acres. Pop. in 1851, 794.

**ISSIGEAC**, a canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of the Dordogne, and arrond. of Bergerac. The cant. comprises 30 com. Pop. in 1831, 9,110; in 1841, 9,067. The town is 11 m. SSE of Bergerac, on the Banège. Pop. 977.

**ISSIMA**, a village of Sardinia, in the div. and prov. and 25 m. ESE of Aosta, on the r. bank of the Eylez. Pop. 1,500.

**ISSOIRE**, an arrondissement, canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of the Puy-de-Dôme. The arrond. comprises an area of 182,076 hect., and contains 9 cant., viz.: Ardes, Besse, Champeix, Saint-Germain-Lembron, Issoire, Jumeaux, Latour, Sauxillanges, and Tauves. Pop. in 1821, 99,770; in 1836, 100,740; in 1841, 99,556.—The cant. comprises 15 com. Pop. in 1831, 16,508; in 1841, 15,248. The town is 20 m. SSE of Clermont, on the Crouze, near its confluence with the Allier. Pop. in 1789, 5,746; in 1821, 5,929; in 1836, 5,741; in 1841, 5,224. It is small and ill-built, but has a handsome church and a college, and possesses a considerable trade in oil, wine, hemp, and apples. It has extensive manufactories of copper-ware, large distilleries and oil-mills, and a printing establishment. Fairs for cattle and grain are held twice a-year.—This town, which is of great antiquity, was named *Yciodorencis* in the Middle ages, and was formerly celebrated for a school and temple erected by that people. It was sacked by the Vandals. It suffered much from the disputes of which, as the patrimony of the counts of Auvergne, it was the cause; and towards the close of the 16th cent. sustained two sieges, in the first of which it was totally destroyed. The environs abound with nut-trees, and contain mines of antimony and coal.

**ISSOUDUN**, an arrondissement, canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of the Indre. The arrond. comprises an area of 117,849 hect., and contains 3 cant. Pop. in 1831, 45,668; in 1841, 47,016.—The cant. comprises 24 com. Pop. in 1831, 26,790; in 1841, 27,562. The town is situated partly on a hill, and partly in a fine plain, on the Théols, 19 m. SE of Chateauroux. Pop. in 1789, 10,530; in 1821, 11,077; in 1831, 11,664; in 1841, 12,234. It is one of the most important towns in the dep. It has 4 churches, 2 hospitals, a communal college, and a theatre. The streets are broad and regularly built, and the houses handsome. It possesses manufactories of cloth, linen, parchment, and hosiery; several tanneries and extensive bleacheries; and has an active trade in wine, corn, cattle, and wool. Fairs are held ten times a-year. Little is known with respect to the origin of this town. It was long held by the English. In 1135, 1504, and 1651, it was to a great extent destroyed by fire.—Also a commune in the dep. of the Creuse, cant. and 5 m. SSW of Chénérailles. Pop. 1,243.

**ISSUM**, a village of Prussia, in the prov. of the Rhine and regency of Dusseldorf, circle and 5 m. E of Geldern. Pop. 1,000. It has a Lutheran church, and possesses manufactories of velvet, silk, and flannel, several potteries, and a tannery.

**ISSUS**. See **ISKENDERUN**.

**ISSY**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Seine, cant. and 5 m. N of Sceaux, and 4 m. SW of Paris, in a fine plain, near the l. bank of the Seine. The chief objects of interest which it possesses are the ancient house of Margaret-de-Valois, now belonging to the seminary of Saint Sulpice at Paris, and a Gothic edifice named the house of Childbert. It contains also numerous handsome villas,

and has manufactories of soda, potash, acids, and whiting.

**ISSY-L'ÉVEQUE**, a canton and commune of France, in the dep. of the Saône-et-Loire, and arrond. of Autun. The cant. comprises 7 com. Pop. in 1831, 6,130; in 1841, 6,087. The village is 20 m. SW of Autun, on the Somme. Pop. 1,855. Cattle fairs are held here 6 times a-year.

**ISTAKHUR**, a district and mountain-fortress of Persia, in the prov. of Fars. The district, which also bears the name of Koureh, lies in the NE part of the prov., and is watered by the Kur or Bund-amir and Correen. It is inhabited by Guebres and Parsis, and numerous nomades. Its chief town is Yezd. The fortress stands on a rocky eminence which rises perpendicularly on the confines of the plain of Merdasht.

**ISTALIF**, a town of Afghanistan, in the province and 22 m. NW of Cabul, on the slope of a hill, at the foot of the Hindu-kush. It is inhabited by Tadjiks, the number of whom, previous to the storming of the town by the British in 1842, was estimated at 15,000. They are remarkable for the irascibility of their temperament, owing to it is said to their diet, which consists chiefly of bread made of sundried mulberries. The manufacture and dyeing of cloth form the chief branches of local industry.

**ISTAMBUL**. See **CONSTANTINOPLE**.

**ISTAPA**. See **ESTAPA**.

**ISTANOS**, a town of Asia Minor, in Anatolia, sanj. and 20 m. W of Angora, on the r. bank of the Char-Su, an affluent of the Enguri-Su. It contains about 400 houses.

**ISTARDA**, or **STAROVA**, a town of Turkey in Europe, in Albania, in the sanj. and 17 m. S of Ochrida, on the SW bank of the lake of that name.

**ISTEIN**, a village of Baden, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, 21 m. SSW of Friburg, on the r. bank of the Rhine, which is here crossed by a bridge. Pop. 455.

**ISTILLAR (GULF OF)**, an indentation of the coast of Turkey in Europe, in the sanj. of Salonika, and SW of the gulf of Orphano; separated from the gulf of Monte-Santo by the isthmus which connects the peninsula of Mount Athos with the continent. It is 14 m. in breadth, and about 9 m. in depth, and nearly oval in shape. The entrance is formed by two peninsulas, at the extremity of each of which is a group of small islands.

**ISTIP**, **ISTIB** or **ISTIR**, a town of Turkey in Europe, in Rumelia, in the sanj. and 66 m. SW of Ghiustendil, near the l. bank of the Bagranitza. Pop., chiefly Turks, 8,000. It is surrounded by an embattled wall, now much dilapidated, and has a suburb, named Yeni-Keni, inhabited by Greeks.

**ISTMO**, or **YSTMO**, a department of New Granada, comprising the district of Veragua and the isthmus of Panama, and enclosing the bay of Panama. See **PANAMA**.

**ISTRANA**, a village of Austrian Lombardy, in the district and 6 m. W of Treviso. Pop. 500.

**ISTRES**, a canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of Bouches-du-Rhône.—The cant. comprises 4 coms. Pop. in 1841, 8,651.—The town is situated 25 m. NW of Marseilles, near the W bank of the Etang-de-Berre. Pop. 3,122.

**ISTRI**, a river of Russia, rising to the SE of Klin, in the gov. of Moscow, flowing S, and falling into the Moskva, on the l. bank, after a course of 52 m.

**ISTRIA**, a circle of the Austrian kingdom of Illyria, administratively comprised in the gov. of Trieste, forming in part a triangular peninsula, bounded on the N by the gulf of Trieste and the circles of Gorizia and Laibach; on the E by the gulf of Quarnero, or the channels of Farisina and Quarnero, by which it is separated from the island of

Cherso; and on the S and W by the Adriatic. Its superficial area amounts to 1,824 sq. m. The surface towards the sea is in many parts low and marshy; a part, especially to the NW, consists of precipitous mountains, whose sides are penetrated by caverns and grottos incrustated by stalactites. The mountains are either capped with snow, bare and barren, or are covered by beautiful forests, from which the marine of Venice is chiefly supplied. The hills are of singular and continually varying forms; and the face of the country everywhere presents deep dells, hanging woods, and villages and ruins perched upon pinnacles or buried in abysses. The principal rivers are the Poik, flowing N to the Isonzo; the Dragogna, the Quieto, and the Canale-di-Leina, all flowing W into the gulf of Venice.—The climate is very uncertain and often severe. The agriculture of the country is not of great importance.—The pop. is mainly dependent on maritime commerce, and especially on the trade connected with Trieste. The general aspect of the country is bare; the surface is so porous or cavernous that the rain-water is speedily lost to agriculture, and the surface is susceptible of cultivation only in spots and patches. A little wheat, barley, and maize is grown. Oil and wine are extensively made; the latter possesses remarkable strength and flavour. Profitable fisheries of the tunny and anchovy are carried on in the Adriatic.—The pop. of I. in 1837 was 211,020; in 1846, 202,065, exclusive of Trieste, the pop. of which amounted to 59,336. It is of two races; the Italian, which forms the pop. of the maritime towns; and the Slavonic, which constitutes the mass of the peasantry. The Istrians are tall and well-formed, and make excellent infantry soldiers. The women are very handsome, generally of fair complexion, and often with light hair and blue eyes.—I. contains several towns of considerable importance, of which the principal is Trieste, situated at the bottom of a gulf of the same name, and occupying the place of the ancient *Tergeste*. It chiefly began to flourish under the empress Maria Theresa, somewhat after the middle of the 17th cent. This city with the adjacent territory, amounting altogether to about 35 sq. m., now forms a distinct administrative prov. [See TRIESTE.] Capo d'Istria is usually considered the capital of I. proper. [See CAPO D'ISTRIA.] The town of Pola, situated on a small bay of the same name, near the S extremity of the peninsula, now an inconsiderable place, though efforts are making to render it a naval station, is, as remarked by Pococke, "in relation to its antiquities, to be regarded among the greatest." [See POLA.] One of the more flourishing towns of Istria is the seaport Rovigno, occupying a peninsula on the W coast. A small town, called Pirano, stands in a picturesque situation, on a peninsula between the gulf of Lagona and that of Trieste. In the extreme N of the circle is the town of Idria; and 15 m. SSE of it lies the village of Adelsberg, celebrated for its curious caverns.—The great lines of road which intersect I. are those leading from Trieste along the coast, and interiorly through the centre of the peninsula to Pola; and the great road from Fiume N by Adelsberg to Laibach, with a branch to Idria. At Adelsberg this latter route is joined by a road from Trieste. The roads in this country of hills, are excellent in themselves, and are kept in good order.—The history of I.—which can be obtained only from meagre materials—ascends to a very early date. It is considered to have been one of the Illyrian provinces. The Colchians, returning from their celebrated expedition, are supposed to have established themselves here; when the country was conquered by the Romans, they found the worship of Isis established in it. I. when united to the empire, shared in its diversified

fortunes. The monuments which yet remain in it testify to the advanced state of the arts; but the decline of the empire admitted new and barbarous invaders, and this country at length fell under the dominion of the Venetians.

ISTRINA, a town of Turkey, in the sanj. and 52 m. S of Krukovatz, on the r. bank of the Liperitza.

ISTURITS, a village of France, in the dep. of Basses-Pyrenees, cant. and 5 m. SSE of La Bastide-de-Clarence. Pop. 850.

ISTVANDI, a town of Hungary, in the com. of Schemeg, 27 m. SSW of Kaposvar, on the r. bank of the Okor.

ITA, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 19 m. NE of Guadalaxara, on the flank of a hill on the road from Madrid to Alcala-de-Henares. Pop. 987.

ITABAIANINHA, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Sergipe, to the N of the head of Rio-Real, and W of São-Christovão.

ITABAIANNA, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Sergipe, at the foot of the serra of the same name. Pop. 2,000.—The serra, which is the most extensive mountain-range in the prov., runs between the rivers Real and Irapiang.

ITABATINGAHL, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Pedro-do-Rio-Grande, flowing into the Jacuhi, on the r., between the Marcos and the Pequeri.

ITABERAVA, a village and parish of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, 20 m. SE of Ouro-Preto. Pop. 7,000, agriculturists and miners.

ITABIRA, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, on the l. bank of the Rio-das-Velhas, 17 m. ENE of Ouro-Preto.—Also a lofty iron-stone mountain in the same prov., near the town of Itabira-de-Mata-Dentov, 55 m. NE of Ouro-Preto. Alt. 4,895 ft. [Von Eschwege.]

ITABIRACU, a lofty pyramidal mountain of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, 20 m. S of Itabira.

ITABORAH, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, on the Rio-Igua.

ITACACIBA, a small port of Brazil, on a bay of the same name, in the prov. of Espirito-Santo.

ITACOLUMI, the loftiest summit of the Cordilheira-da-Mantiqueira, in the Brazilian prov. of Minas-Geraes. It has an alt., according to Von Eschwege, of 5,710 ft. It may be easily ascended from Ouro-Preto, or Villa-Rica, which stands on the narrow valley formed by the S declivities of the I., and the Morro-de-Villa-Rica. It consists of white quartz slate. Iron-stone appears at the foot of the mountain.—Also another mountain in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, near Marianna.—Also a summit in the Serra-dos-Órgãos, in the prov. of Rio-Janeiro.—Also a mountain in the prov. of Maranhão, in the E angle of the bay of Cuma, in 2° 8' 38" S lat.

ITACJRUÇU, a small island of Brazil, in the bay of Angra-dos-Reis, prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro.

ITAGUAHI, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, comarca of Angra-dos-Reis, between the Sierra-de-Santa-Cruz, and the river I. The pop. of the town and district is 4,000, chiefly agriculturists.—The river I. rises in the district of São-João-Marcos; runs from W to E, and then, turning S, enters the bay of Angra-dos-Reis, opposite the island Madeira. A canal has been formed between this river and the town of I.

ITAIHIPE, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Bahia, comarca of Ilheos, rising in the Serra-Itaraca, flowing E, and falling into the Bahia-dos-Ilheos.—Also a lake in the same district, about 5 m. in length, by 2½ m. in breadth, which discharges itself into the river I.

ITAIPU, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-



de-Janeiro, 8 m. ESE of Nitherohi. Pop. of town and adjacent district, 2,000.

ITAJAHI, a river of Brazil, which rises in the prov. of São-Paulo; enters that of Santa-Catharina; and flows into the bay of Garoupas. Its chief affluents are the Suiz-Alves, and the Itajahi-Mirim.

ITALA, a small town of Sicily, 15 m. SW of Messina.

## ITALY,

A celebrated region of Central Europe, extending between the parallels of  $36^{\circ} 35'$  and  $47^{\circ}$  N. and the meridians of  $6^{\circ} 35'$  and  $18^{\circ} 35'$  E long. The limits of no region are marked in more distinct and precise characters by the hand of Nature than those of I.; yet nowhere have the political boundaries and divisions of any country been more fluctuating and uncertain. The Alps, the highest mountains in the ancient world, stretching in a huge crescent, one extremity of which rests on the head of the Adriatic gulf, the other on the gulf of Genoa, separate Italy from the regions to the N. and serve at once as a barrier against the frozen tempests which blow from the Boreal regions, and a rampart against continental invasion. Hannibal denominated the Alps, the walls, not only of Italy, but even of Rome itself. The Adriatic sea bathes this charming country on the E, and the Tuscan sea on the W; on the S, the Ionian sea opens an easy communication with all the southern countries. Numberless islands line its extensive shores; and in the interior, the Apennines, a range of mountains of the second order, commence where the Alps terminate, and extending through its whole length, branch into various ramifications, dividing the peninsula into several provinces materially differing in their climates and productions. The length of Italy, from Monte Rosa, the highest summit of the Italian Alps, to the Capo-di-Leuca, is 670 m.; while its medial breadth, between the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, is about 100 m.; but from the head of the gulf of Trieste to the Rhone, the W boundary of Savoy, the breadth is 370 m. According to Mayer's map the total superficial extent of I., including the surface of its islands, is 131,600 British sq. m. Galante estimates its area at 127,970 sq. m. Bianchi estimates it at 100,000 geog. sq. m. It may be reckoned generally at two-thirds the area of France, one-tenth that of Russia in Europe, four-fifths that of the Spanish peninsula, and three times that of Greece; and as nearly equal to that of the British islands.

*Divisions.*] I. was, in very ancient times, like most other countries, parcelled out into innumerable petty states and kingdoms; but became divided, while yet in a state of incipient civilization, into three grand districts,—the northern, the central, and the southern. The first was seized and colonized by the Gauls, who either extirpated, expelled, or subjugated the original inhabitants. This division was denominated by the Romans, in the earlier periods of their history, *Gallia Cisalpina*, because it

lay on the Italian side of the Alps; afterwards, when reduced into a Roman province, *Gallia Togata*, because the inhabitants, in imitation of their conquerors, wore the Roman *toga* or gown. It was also called *Italia Subalpina*, or Italy at the foot of the Alps. This extensive tract, which extended from the *Alpes Rhæticae*, or the mountains of Tyrol on the NE, to the *Mare Ligusticum*, or gulf of Genoa, on the SW, was subdivided into four regions: viz. *Italia Subalpina*, or Piedmont; *Liguria*, or the Genoese territory; *Gallia Cispadana*; and *Gallia Transpadana*. These two last divisions, comprehending the fertile valley of the Po, now known by the name of Lombardy, were bounded on the S by the Apennines; on the E by the Adriatic; on the W by the Subalpine countries; and on the N by the Alps which divide Italy from Switzerland and Tyrol. All these four divisions comprised a tract of country 280 m. in length, by 150 m. in breadth. The central division, now known by the name of Tuscany and the States of the Church, comprehended the ancient *Etruria*, *Umbria*, *Latium*, *Sabinum*, *Picenum*, and the NW parts of the modern kingdom of Naples. The Etrurians were of Asiatic extraction; the Umbrians were a Celtic colony; the Latins derived their origin from the Pelasgic and Æolic Greeks, but, as the ancestors of the Roman name and power proceeded from the most barbarous parts of Greece at a very early period, many ages elapsed before their manners, brutalized by a continual series of incessant conflicts, reflected a tint of Grecian civilization. The southern division was called *Magna Græcia*, because most of the cities on its coast were Greek colonies, and spoke the Greek language. The inhabitants gave it the appellation of *Magna Græcia*, not that it was greater than Greece properly so called, but from mere vanity, as we are informed by Pliny. This tract comprehended almost the whole of the modern Neapolitan territories, and comprised the ancient *Apulia*, *Lucania*, and *Bruttium*.—Italy was afterwards divided by Augustus Cæsar into 11 provinces. Upon the downfall of the Roman name and power, it was seized by the Ostrogoths, who were expelled by the celebrated Belisarius, general of the emperor Justinian. In the middle ages, the kingdom of Lombardy and the kingdom of Naples held the two extremities; while the Papal and Tuscan territories occupied the centre of I.—Italy, taken in its utmost extent, may still be considered under the three grand divisions: Northern I., Central I., and Southern I. The first, or northern division, contains the dominions of the king of Sardinia, the Italian portion of Switzerland, and the Austro-Italian states, including the Tyrol, and the Illyrico-Hungarian Littorale. The second or central Italy, the dominions of the grand duke of Tuscany, the Pope's territories, the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the small republic of San Marino. The third grand division embraces the south of Italy, with the island of Sicily, subject to the king of Naples; and may be regarded as physically comprising the island of Corsica belonging to France, and the Maltese group belonging to England.

The following table exhibits the area in Italian or geographical square miles, and the population according to the latest returns, of the present political divisions of Italy:

	Area.	Pop.
1. KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.		
1. Continental provinces,	14,989	4,368,975
2. Insular provinces, comprising the islands of Sardinia and Capraia, . . . . .	8,234	547,112
	23,223	4,916,087 in 1848

## II. PRINCIPALITY OF MONACO.

\*\*\* Forming an *enclave* in the Sardinian prov. of Nice.  
The admeasurement of area is that of Zuccagni. Bianchi estimates it at only 6'25 geog. sq. m.

10 — 6,800 in 1846

## III. REPUBLIC OF TICINO.

\*\*\* Politically incorporated in the Swiss confederacy.  
Its area is estimated by several writers at only 780 geog. sq. m.

800 117,397 1850

## IV. DUCHY OF PARMA.

Including Piacenza and Guastalla.

2,098 494,737 —

## V. DUCHY OF MODENA,

1,630 586,458 —

## VI. GRAND-DUCHY OF TUSCANY.

Including the islands of Elba and Gorgona; and the recent addition of Lucca,

6,407 1,696,483 1848

## VII. THE PAPAL STATES.

12,120 2,898,115 1843

## VIII. REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO,

20 7,600 ?

## IX. THE LOMBARDO-VENETIAN, or AUSTRO-ITALIAN KINGDOM.

1. Province of Lombardy,	6,245	2,670,833 in 1846
2. Province of Venice,	7,003	2,257,200 —
3. Province of Trent, or the Italian Tyrol,	4,980	500,000 ?
4. The Italian provinces of the kingdom of Illyria; viz.		
a. Government of Trieste,	50	81,500 1849
b. Circles of Gorizia and Gradisca,	800	193,268 —
c. Circle of Istria,	1,350	230,528 —
	2,200	

19,528 5,933,329

## X. KINGDOM OF NAPLES, or of THE TWO SICILIES.

1. Continental provinces,	24,971	6,382,706
2. Island of Sicily,	7,787	2,040,610

32,758 8,423,316 1845

\*\*\* The above areas are those adopted by Bianchi. The *Almanach de Gotha* assigns 24,563 Italian sq. m. to the Continental, and 7,967 to the Insular possessions of Sicily.

## XI. ISLAND OF CORSICA, belonging to France,

2,850 230,271 1846

## XII. Islands of MALTA, GOZO, and COMINO, belonging to England,

265 118,759 1842

101,709 25,429,352

*Physical features.*] Nothing can excel the natural scenery of I., in all the ingredients which compose the sublime or the beautiful. Its mountains present every variety of shape and magnitude, of rugged precipices, wooded declivities, snowy summits, winding bases, and all the materials and groupings of picturesque beauty. Even the plains are varied by gentle swells and bolder elevations; while the extraordinary purity of the atmosphere gives a distinctness to every object, which cannot be conceived by those who are accustomed to a vapoury sky. The brightest descriptions of poetry do not surpass the effect produced by the vale of Clitumnus, the falls of the Anio, the banks of the Nar, the waters of Tibur, the groves of Albano, the plains, hills, coasts, and bays of Campania Felix. [*Eustace.*] "When we first tread the soil of I., the loveliness of the landscape absorbs our whole attention. Association, indeed, does much to strengthen the spell which the scenery throws over us; and the force of the attraction is greatly increased by the southern sky, with its balmy repose, its magical colouring, and its harmonious combinations of light and shadow. All the features of the picture, however, are in themselves both novel and beautiful. The climate and its productions do not, it is true, unfold their full luxuriance till we reach Sicily; but to the native of Northern Europe, the face of the country is new

from the very foot of the Alps. I. is divided by nature into two very dissimilar regions. The first is Lombardy, or Upper Italy, bounded, as we have seen, on the N by the Alps, and on the S by the Apennines. This tract commences, on the N and W, among Alpine heights and glens, whose aspect is that of Switzerland. The mountains then subside into broad meadow-plains, watered by large rivers, and crossed in every field by rows of poplars supporting vines; while the olive-groves on the lower eminences both of the Alpine and Apennine chains, and the scattered cypresses and pines, impart the first characteristic images of the Italian landscape. Southward of the ridge of the Apennines is the second region, the strictly peninsular portion of I. On crossing the mountains which bound it on the N, we immediately lose the broad plains and full rivers of Lombardy. The Apennine accompanies us to the extremity of the peninsula, dividing it lengthwise, narrowing its flats, and forming deep hollows by the promontories which it everywhere sends out. The mountains, though in many districts lofty, are rounded in shape; and the undulating hills which cluster about their sides, sink down into flat alluvial valleys like the deserted beds of lakes. Woods of olive-trees, not unlike in character to the birch, cover the rising grounds with their gray foliage. Towns and villages on the plains, or oftener perched

like castles on the hills, peer out from amidst vineyards, or clumps of the dark flat-topped pine, and the tall pillar-like cypress; and the most uncultivated and lonely of the vales are clothed with a picturesque and almost tropical prodigality of vegetation, in the wild trees and shrubs, the broad leafy masses of the glossy ilex, the rich forms and colours of the arbutus, and the graceful outline of the fragrant myrtle. This aspect of the landscape, which prevails in Middle I., suffers some changes as we advance farther S. The date-palm is now seen in sheltered nooks; in some districts the orange and lemon groves give odour to the air; and the aloe and cactus grow wild upon the rocks. These features are caught in glimpses, even on the northern side of the Apennines; they are more and more frequent as we proceed towards Lower I., in which they are not indeed the prevailing features; but in several quarters assume prominence in the scene; and in Sicily the picture unites oriental vegetation with that of the Italian valleys. The panorama of the low country, too, has everywhere a background in the mountains, among which, as we climb their sides, the wide woods of chestnut, intermingled with oak and beech, give way to the hardier species of the pine and other vigorous plants, and these to the green pastures which rise to the very summits of the Apennines." [Spalding.] On the N and W mountains rising into the clouds separate I. from France, Switzerland, and Germany; a few passes lead over this chain, from which a single ridge runs out over the whole peninsula, under the name of the Apennines, and even passes over into the island of Sicily. The coasts are flat and unprotected on the NE, where the Po, and several rapid coast-rivers, flowing from the neighbouring Alps, rush with great impetuosity into the sea; but everywhere else they are guarded by high rocks and steep cliffs. Upper I., where the Apennines approach the SW coast, has its declination towards the Adriatic; the rest of I. declines on one side of this chain towards the Tyrrhenian, and on the other towards the Adriatic and the Ionian seas. The N or continental part of I. is a large valley extending between the Alps and Apennines. The Alps in Upper Italy present a slaty surface, which rests on a calcareous basis. On some of the mountains volcanic productions are found, and the strata are broken and interrupted. The districts of Padua, Vicenza, and Verona are volcanic, but well-watered and fertile. The S of Italy has not much water; even Tuscany, though mountainous, does not abound in it, and the streams which come down from the Apennines are mere brooks which often entirely disappear during the summer. The luxuriant vegetation of this part of I. is chiefly owing to its volcanic soil. The coast of the Adriatic, from the mouth of the Po to Cape Leuca, on the N side of the Apennines is almost entirely calcareous; but the S side, or the coast of the Tyrrhenian sea, from Pisa to Salerno, is volcanic. Barren steppes, and pestiferous tracts of land, occur at Manfredonia and Barletta, in the Maremma of Sienna, and the Pontine marshes; in Upper I., too, some very unwholesome districts exist in the lagunes and marshes of the Po.

*Rivers.* I. is intersected with rivers which flow in every direction to the sea. Of these the Po is by far the most important for magnitude and length of course, and is justly denominated the prince of the Italian streams. On account of its depth it received from the Ligurians, who dwelt in its neighbourhood, the appellation of *Bodincus*, or 'the bottomless.' The classic pen of Ovid has immortalized it under the name of *Eridanus*, as consecrated by the fall of Phaeton, shaded by his sister-poplars, and enriched

by their amber-tears. This magnificent stream rises in the recesses of Mount Vesulus or Viso, at an elevation of 6,466 ft., 30 m. to the W of Turin, on the confines of France and Italy, and nearly in the parallel of Mount Dauphine in Dauphiné, and of Saluzzo in Piedmont. Descending from the Western Alps, it passes on the NE of Saluzzo, by Carignan, to Turin: receiving, even in this short space, many Alpine streams, as the Varila, Maira, and Grana, from the S, and the Felice, Sagon, and others from the N. Most of these streams, having had a longer course than that which is called the Po, might perhaps be more justly regarded as the principal river; nay, the Tanaro, which rises in the Apennines, and flows into the Po some miles below Alessandria, might claim, in the river Stura, a more remote source than the Po itself. After leaving the walls of Turin, the Po receives innumerable rivers and rivulets from the Alps on the N, and the Apennines on the S. Among the former may be named the two Dorias, the Sesia, the Ticino or Tessino, the Adda, the Oglio, and the Mincio, to the E of which, the Adige, an independent stream, descends from the Alps of Tyrol, and pursues a course of 200 m. to the Adriatic. From the S, the Po receives the large river Tanaro, itself swelled by the Belba, the Bormida, the Stura, and other streams. The other southern streams are of less consequence; but, among them may be named the Trebbia, a rapid stream, famous for the defeat of Sempronius by Hannibal, and, in modern times, by the hard-earned victory of Suwarrow over Macdonald, the river of Parma, and the Panaro which enters the Po at Stellato to the W of Ferrara. The comparative course of the Po is about 300 m. Its average breadth from Turin, where it becomes navigable, to Arona where it falls into the Adriatic, is 1,200 ft. To the N of Ferrara it is as broad as the Rhine at Dusseldorf; and, before it receives the Mincio, it rivals the Danube at Vienna. Its depth is everywhere great; and its current strong and rapid. The sand and gravel washed from the Alps and Apennines by its numerous tributary streams have elevated the bed of the Po in modern times, so that in many places banks of 30 ft. high are necessary to preserve the country from inundation. The canal of Naviglio unites the navigation of the Tessino and the Po.—The next river in size, but superior in point of classical celebrity, is the Tiber, which, rising in the Apennines, near the source of the Arno, and passing by Perugia and Rome, enters the Mediterranean after a comparative course of 150 m. It is said to receive 42 rivers or torrents, many of them celebrated in Roman story, and has a stream always full, though only 300 ft. wide at Rome.—The length of the course of the Adige is almost that of the Po. It becomes navigable on entering Italy; and falls into the Adriatic at Brendola. [See ADIGE.] The coasting-rivers of Venice are the Brenta, the Piave, the Tagliamento, and the Isonzo. The Var, which forms the boundaries between France and Piedmont, falls into the Mediterranean at Tour-de-Serre. The Paglion, a river of Piedmont, falls into the sea at Nice. The Magra is a coasting-river of which the mouth is at Monte Marcelllo. The Serchio falls into the sea at S. Giuliano. The Arno descends from the Apennines, and flows into the sea at Pisa. The Fiora, the Marta, the Mignone, the Arone, the Astura, the Garigliano, one of the largest rivers of Naples, the Volturno, the Silaro, the Ofanto, the Fortore, the Biferno, and the Pescara, are all Neapolitan rivers. The Asone, the Chiento, the Esimo, the Metauro, the Marecchio, the Ronea, and the Montone, belong to the Papal States. In Sicily there are the Giarreta and the Salso; in Sardinia, the Oristano and Flumendosa.



in Corsica, the Lìamone and Tavignano. Many of the rivers of Upper I. are navigable either naturally or by art, and several are united with one another, or with the lakes by canals; but in Central and Lower I. there are no navigable rivers except the Arno and Tiber. Some of the Italian rivers at their mouth form pernicious *marennas*.—The Orco, which descends from Mount Cervin, forms at Ceresole a vertical cascade of 2,400 ft.; and the torrent of Evanson, in its descent from Monte Rosa, has a fall of 1,200 ft. The cataract of Terni, formed by the Nar, is perhaps the most beautiful in the world. The river Velino, a little before its junction with the Nar, suddenly rushes down a precipice 300 ft. high, and dashes so violently on the subjacent rocks that a great part of the stream rises in vapour. It afterwards falls down two other precipices nearly of the same height. The aggregate height of these falls is 800 ft. The river Tivertone, the ancient *Anio*, has a fall of 50 ft., near Tivoli.

*Lakes.* I. abounds in beautiful lakes, particularly in the N division. The Lago Maggiore, or lake of Locarno, 27 m. long, by 3 m. of medial breadth, stretches from Locarno, in the Swiss cant. of Tessino, to Testo in the gov. of Milan, and is connected by the canal of Ticinello with the town of Milan. Its shores abound with Alpine beauties, and its depth is immense, being no less than 1,800 ft. This lake is connected by the Tresa with Lake Lugano on the E, celebrated for its beautiful Borromean isles. Farther to the E is the lake of Como, which is joined by that of Lecco. It is about 32 m. in length; but its medial breadth is not above 2½ m. Still farther to the E is the Lago Iseo, which is followed by the noble Lago-di-Garda, celebrated by Virgil in his pastorals under the name of *Benacus*. It has an expanse of 30 m. in length, by 8 m. in breadth. The scenery of these lakes—which all belong to the Austro-Italian states—is highly interesting, and has called forth all the powers of song to describe their beauties. One word of Virgil has given dignity to the Larian lake; one verse of his has communicated the grandeur of the ocean to the *Benacus*; and a few lines have raised the streamlet of the *Mincius* above the full and majestic Danube. One grand feature which distinguishes the scenery of the northern Italian lakes from that of the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, or of the Caledonian lochs, is the effect produced on the mind and feelings of the British traveller, from the sublime appearance of the Alpine ridge which rises above their extremities, or envelopes them in its bosom, and presents every mountain-form and colour, from the curve to the pinnacle, and from the deep tints of the forest to the dazzling whiteness of snow, so that to the traveller recently returned from Italy, Windermere appears a pool, and Skiddaw shrinks into a hillock. Lochlomond is the only lake in this country which can vie with those Alpine waters, skirted as it is by the lofty Benlomond, and embracing in its broad expanse a number of charming little islands. Yet the heathy sides, the naked brow, the heavy lumpish form of Benlomond and the lifeless masses around it, are not to be compared with the bold, the varied, and the animated scenery, which presents to the astonished view the incipient beauties of spring, the glories of summer, or the finished splendours of autumn, contrasted with the glaciers that crown the summits, or hang on the sides of the Italian Alps. In Savoy there are the lakes of Bourget and Annecy, and a part of the lake of Geneva belongs to that country. In Piedmont is the small lake of Viverone; in Tuscany the Lago-di-Ignoso, di Fucecchio, di Seria, and di Castiglione; in Lucca the Lago-di-Massaciucoli; in the States

of the Church the Lago-di-Bolsena, di Bracciano, and di Perugia; in the kingdom of Naples the Lago-di-Celano and di Fondi; the lakes of Varano, Lesina, and Salpi, are connected with the sea; and those of Agnano and Averno are quite insignificant. In the island of Sicily there are not any considerable lakes, neither are there any in Sardinia and Corsica.

*Mountains.* The most important mountains of I. are the Alps; which, rising from the sea to the W of Oneglia, run for a short space in a W direction, and then assume a N course as far as the frontiers of Savoy and Dauphiné, where a lateral ridge, projecting from the main range, and extending in a W direction, separates Dauphiné on the S from Savoy on the N, and is also separated from Italy on the E by the main range. The Alps then take a NW course, terminated in this direction by Mont Blanc. From that majestic mountain they run NE, separating the Valais in Switzerland from the duchy of Aosta and part of the Milanese, as far as St. Gothard and the sources of the Tessino. Thence they run almost due E, separating the Milanese, the Trentine, and ci-devant Venetian territories on the S, from the Valteline, the Tyrol, and Carinthia on the N. They then assume a SE direction, as far as the head of the gulf of Cattaro; and are there known by the appellation of Montenegro, or 'the Black mountain.' Running in this direction parallel with the coast of the Adriatic, they separate Istria, Morlachia, and Dalmatia on the SW, from Carniola, Austrian and Turkish Croatia, the Herzegovina, and Bosnia on the NE. [See article ALPS.] The Apennines, 'the infant Alps,' as they have been called by a great poet, are more remarkable for length of course than greatness of altitude. These mountains begin to assume that appellation in the neighbourhood of Genoa. While the Alpine summits are chiefly granitic, the Apennines are, with a few exceptions, a limestone formation, and therefore abound in beautiful marbles. Monte Velino, near the middle of Italy, is the chief elevation, being 7,872 ft. above the level of the sea; Monte Terminillo, 6,600 ft.; and Monte Cimone, the ancient *Mons Ciminus*, 6,600 ft. high. [See article APENNINES.]

*Climate.* I., extended between the 38 and 46 parallels of N lat., is exposed to a considerable degree of heat in summer and cold in winter; but the influence of the seas which wash its peninsular shores, and the mountains which surround or intersect it, counteract the effects of latitude, and produce a temperature excluding every extreme, and rendering all its seasons delightful. However, as the action of these causes is unequal, the climate, though everywhere genial and temperate, varies considerably. The mean annual temp. at Milan is 53°·6; at Florence, 58°·4; at Rome, 60°; at Naples, 62°·2. Without entering minutely into all or many of those variations,—chiefly the effects of the bearings of the different mountainous ranges,—we may regard I. as divided into four regions, which, like the Sister Nalads of Ovid, while they have many features in common, have also each a characteristic peculiarity. The first of these regions is the vale of the Po, extending 260 m. in length, and 150 m. in breadth where widest; and bounded by the Alps and Apennines on all sides but the E, where it lies open to the Adriatic. The second is the tract enclosed by the Apennines, forming the Papal and Tuscan states. The third is confined to the Campania Felix and its immediate dependencies, such as the borders of the bay of Naples and its islands, and the plains of Paestum. The last, consists of the Abruzzo, Apulia, and Calabria.—The first of these regions or climates has been represented as perhaps the most fertile and the most delicious territory in the known world. This fertility is owing to the innumerable streams which descend from the Alps that border it on the N and W, and the Apennines which bound it on the S, and furnish a constant supply to the majestic *Aurora rex, Eridanus*. But while thus fertilized by mountain-rills and Alpine streams, and cooled in summer by occasional gales, this region is sometimes invaded by blasts which chill its climate and give its winter some features of transalpine severity, slight indeed, as if merely to call the attention of the natives to that eternal repository of snow which rises continually before them, but sufficient to check the growth of such plants as, like the orange and the almond, shrink from frost, or pine away under its most mitigated aspect.—The second region is protected from the N by an additional range of mountains, so that it becomes less

obnoxious to the action of frost, and is indeed more liable to be injured by the heats of summer than by wintry cold. Its productions accordingly improve in strength and flavour; its wines are more generous than those of Milan and Mantua; and its orchards are graced with oranges. It is, however, exposed to chill blasts occasionally; and not entirely unacquainted with the frosts and snows of transalpine latitudes.—In the third climate, that is in the delicious plains of Campania, Nature appears robed in such beauty, and pours forth all her treasures with such bounteous profusion, that it seems a terrestrial paradise, and has called forth the united powers and descriptive talents of the traveller, the historian, the poet, and the painter, to depict its beauties.—The plains of Apulia, which lie beyond the Apennines, with the coasts of Abruzzo and Calabria, form the last division, differing from that which precedes it in increasing warmth only, and in productions more characteristic of a southern latitude, such as the aloe and the majestic palm.—These distinctions of climate are confined principally to the plains; as the mountains which surround them vary according to their elevation, and at the same time enclose valleys which in the S enjoy the cool temperature of Milan, and in the N glow with all the sultriness of Abruzzo. The chief inconvenience of the Italian climate is what is denominated in the Levant the *malaria*,—a pernicious distemper of the air arising from the many marshes and stagnant lakes in the centre of the country; and, in addition to the fiery eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius, it is exposed to the terrible effects of frequent earthquakes, and the enervating sirocco or hot wind which blows from the opposite coast of Africa.—It has been imagined that the climate of I. has become warmer than the descriptions of the ancient Romans would lead us to suppose it to have been in their time; and this change has been ascribed to the cultivation of Germany, by the clearing away of its immense forests, and the draining of its extensive swamps. But the lofty barriers of the Alps seem to preclude any cause of this kind from operating upon I.; and it may be questioned whether any change at all has taken place. It is observed by travellers, that the same places which are described by the Roman writers as peculiarly cold, are still liable, in consequence of their situation, to severe winter blasts. The remarkable peculiarity in climate known as the *malaria*, extends over a district about 192 geog. m. in length, from Leghorn to Terracina, and about 40 m. in its greatest breadth in the Campagna-di-Roma. There is no visible sign of any insalubrity in the atmosphere of these regions; the sky is as clear, the air as tranquil, and the verdure as fresh as in the most healthy district: many of the places where it prevails are even elevated, dry, and airy. But nothing can be more fatal than its influence, which occasions the worst kind of intermittent fevers, and is particularly hurtful to those who sleep in the open air during the night. The few inhabitants who remain in these tracts are sickly and languid in their whole appearance; and even those who repair to the fatal district only to the temporary labours of the harvest, very frequently fall a sacrifice to the distemper, or at least have their constitutions seriously injured for life. In the vicinity of Rome, the shepherds and their flocks come every night during summer to take shelter within the walls from the noxious atmosphere of the adjoining country. The city itself is not free from the evil; and even its more elevated situations have begun to experience the influence of this spreading insalubrity. To this increasing action of the *malaria* the diminished pop. of Rome is, in the opinion of Chateaubriand, to be in a great measure ascribed. The real cause of this evil has hitherto escaped all research. It has been ascribed to the pestilential air of the stagnant marshes, or the exhalations of a volcanic soil. But it is not confined to places more immediately exposed to such influences; and it is found to increase with the diminution of the pop. and the decay of cultivation. It appears to have been felt in the times of the Roman republic, but to have been limited to a few inconsiderable spots. The destruction of the Roman empire,—the abolition of slavery by the influence of Christianity,—and the translation of the seat of government to Constantinople,—by diminishing the cultivation of the surrounding country, are supposed to have occasioned that neglected state of the soil which produces the *malaria*; while the influence of the evil itself is gradually augmenting the cause, depopulating the fields, and leaving the soil to fall back into its naturally rank and humid state. It has, at the same time, been observed, that much of the sickness is occasioned by the peasantry sleeping on the ground during the night season, and neglecting to protect themselves from the sudden transition of the atmosphere from the heat of the day to the chill of the evening; and that if the lands were partitioned out in small farms, proper houses built for the cultivators, and prudent precautions used during the unwholesome season, the Maremma might again be brought into tillage, and covered with inhabitants.

*Agriculture.* I., possessed of a fertile soil and happy climate, is adapted to almost all the productions of Europe, and might with little pains be made nearly independent of foreign countries; but the state of agriculture, even in its most fertile provs., is faulty in the extreme. The implements of husbandry are everywhere of a rude construction. Even in Lombardy, the waggon is one of the clumsiest vehicles possible, being raised like a high scaffold above four small wheels, and drawn by means of an elevated

pole, under which the oxen are yoked in a very uneasy manner. The plough is constructed in a very awkward style, and in despite of all the known principles of mechanics. The handles are of unequal lengths, and both so very short, that the ploughman, having no lever to assist him, is forced to bend forwards, and to use all his weight to keep the share from entering too deep into the ground. Oxen are uniformly employed by the farmers, both in the plough and waggon; horses are used only for riding to market and church, or for drawing a small provision cart, or other family conveyance. In many places most of the work is done by the spade and hoe. The grain is separated from the straw in many places by the trampling of cattle, which are tied in a string, and whipped round and round till the operation be finished. In the Terra-di-Otranto, it is done by two oxen dragging between them a heavy rough stone, which breaks the sheaves and shakes out the corn. Several districts are comparatively well cultivated, particularly Lombardy, Venice, Piedmont, and Tuscany; but those parts upon which Nature has scattered her richest blessings,—such as Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia, formerly the storehouses of the world,—still suffer under the evils of an oppressive feudal system. In good years I. produces corn enough for its home-consumption, and even for exportation; but when the harvest is not good,—which happens almost every third year—the deficit must be imported from Africa and Hungary. De Chateaubriand divides I., as respects its agriculture, into three regions: The first is Lombardy or the great plain traversed by the Po, the fruitfulness of which allows the crops to succeed one another in a certain order which remains always the same. The second region extends on the S declivity of the Apennines, from the frontiers of France to the borders of Calabria. This is the olive country. The third region comprehends those pastoral countries where animals and vegetables thrive, but from which man has been expelled by the *malaria*. Rice is cultivated in many of the marshy districts of the S, especially around Salerno, and in the fertile vale of Diano; but its cultivation always adds to the insalubrity of the place. Rye is sown in many grounds of Calabria, whose elevated situation renders them too cold for wheat. Its introduction is ascribed to Charles V., who observed in his progress through the prov. so many lands lying waste from the want of a crop suitable to their temp., and ordered a more hardy species of grain to be imported from the N. Millet grows to great perfection in the more humid soils, and particularly in the vicinity of Nocera. Flax and hemp are cultivated in many parts of I., but especially at Bologna, Reggio, and Cape Leuca, at which last-mentioned place the seed appears to be the principal object of the cultivator, and is a principal article of exportation to Venice and Trieste. Cotton is very generally raised, and with profit, through the whole prov. of Otranto, but particularly around the city of Taranto, where the soil, light and somewhat swampy, appears to be peculiarly favourable for its cultivation. It is the shrubby kind that is cultivated, which when fully grown resembles the raspberry plant. About the end of September the pods begin to burst, and from that time the cotton harvest continues to the end of October, the women being employed in breaking off the ripe capsules, and carrying them home in sacks. Tobacco is cultivated successfully in many of the southern districts; but the best is produced near Cape Leuca. About 300,000 lbs. are annually exported from the Papal states.—Among the fruits of I. most deserving of particular notice, must be ranked the grapes and olives; which are cultivated so generally and on so great a scale, as to come properly

under the head of agricultural produce. In many farms, corn, wine, and oil, are equally the objects of attention; and the fields which bear the grain and pulse are little more than ridges, or narrow stripes between the rows of olive-trees, or of poplars and elms clothed with the vine.

The vines are in many places, particularly at Taranto, kept low upon pales; but little care is taken in selecting the grape, according to its quality; and the modern wines of Italy, except in some of the S districts, are so very inferior to what the ancient vintage must be supposed to have produced, that the inferiority has been ascribed to an alleged change in the climate. The greatest errors are committed by the Italian peasantry in the culture of the vine; and the ruin of the wine is completed in the manufacture. "No pains are taken to separate the different species of grapes, either in the planting or in the vintage; they are gathered indiscriminately, and often before they are ripe; and as the landlord generally divides the crop with the tenant, and each makes his own wine, they are liable to be much bruised before they reach the place where they are fermented; no nicety or cleanliness is shown in conducting that process, or in removing the liquor into the cask; in short, the wine is often spoiled irrecoverably before it has left the vat." [Henderson.] The wines of Tuscany are, however, of a better quality, though they do not rank with those of France or Germany. "The Aleatico, or red muscadine, which is produced in the highest perfection at Montepulciano, between Sienna and the Papal state; at Monte-Catini, in the Val-de-Nievole; and at Ponte-a-Moriano, in the Lucchese territory, and of which the name in some measure expresses the rich quality; has a brilliant purple colour, and a luscious aromatic flavour, but without being cloyed to the palate, as its sweetness is generally tempered with an agreeable sharpness and astringency. It is, in fact, one of the best specimens of the *dolce-picanti* wines; and probably approaches more than any other to some of the most esteemed wines of the ancients. The rocky hills of Chianti, near Sienna, furnish another sort of red wine, which is made from a different species of grape, equally sweet, but rather less aromatic: and at Artimino, an ancient villa of the grand dukes, an excellent claret is grown, which Redi places before the wine of Avignon. The wine of Carmignano is also held in much estimation. These are the chief red wines of Tuscany. Formerly several white sorts were made, of which the Verdea, so called from its colour, inclining to green, was in high repute. Frederic II. of Prussia preferred it to all other European wines; and in the time of our James I., to have drunk Verdea is mentioned among the boasts of a travelled gentleman. The best used to be made at Arcetri, in the vicinity of Florence. Next to it ranks the Trebbiano, so called from the grape of that name, and much extolled for its golden colour and exquisite sweetness; being, in fact, rather a syrup than wine. The wines of the Neapolitan territory maintain a much higher character, especially the sweet wines which grow on the volcanic soils of Vesuvius, of which there are three principal sorts, viz. 1st, The Lacrima Christi, a red luscious wine, better known by name than in reality, as it is made but in small quantity, and chiefly reserved for the royal cellars; 2d, a muscadine wine of a rich amber colour, and fragrant aroma; and 3d, the Vino Greco, also a sweet wine, deriving its appellation from the grape that yields it." [Ibid.] The same observations apply in their full force to the Sicilian wines. The olive is cultivated very generally in Tuscany; and particularly in the S provs. of Bari, Otranto, Calabria, and Abruzzo. About 600,000 salme, of 40 galls. each, are estimated as the annual pro-

duce of the Neapolitan dominions, of which more than one-half is consumed within the kingdom. Olive plantations extend on and along the whole coast of Bari; and at Biseglia, a small town of this prov., the olives are equal to the finest produced at Seville. But it is at Gallipoli, in the prov. of Otranto, that the greatest attention is paid to the culture of the olive, and the preparation of the oil. The olive is sufficiently ripe for the table in the month of October, but not for making oil till the end of December. The quality of the oil is greatly injured by the practice of allowing the fruit to hang on the tree till it drop, which often does not take place till the end of March or beginning of April. In Calabria, the fruit is also suffered to remain on the ground after it has dropped, sometimes so long as the month of June. This negligence is principally owing to the obligation laid on the vassals of carrying their olives to be bruised at the mills of their baron, which are usually too few in number for the purpose.

Of all countries in Europe, I. grows most silk, and the management of it is very well understood, particularly in Piedmont and in Lombardy. The *Phalena Bombyx* is the insect most commonly propagated in Italy and Europe for silk; but the *Phalena Atlas* yields a greater quantity. According to Count Dandolo, the amount of raw silk and silk articles exported from Italy, in the years 1807-8-9 and 10, amounted in all to 334,580,628 lira Milanese, being an average of 83,646,157 lira Milanese annually, or £2,790,671 18s. sterling, calculating the lira Milanese at 8d. sterling, which is within a fraction—being 76½ centimes. From 1815 to 1834, the average of Italian silk imported into England was 1,446,519 lbs., of Asiatic silk 1,572,051 lbs. The estimated annual production of raw silk in I. is now 12,000,000 lbs.

I. affords many other productions which scarcely require any cultivation, yet yield a valuable article of home consumption or of foreign trade. Among these may be noticed the manna ash-tree, which grows spontaneously, requiring no other culture than cutting down the strong shoots around the trunk. It continues to yield manna every year for the space of a century; but in consequence of these annual bleedings, seldom attains a considerable size. The gathering of the gum begins about the end of July, when a horizontal cut, inclining upwards, is made in the trunk of the tree, and repeated every day as long as any drops of manna exude, which are generally collected in a kind of cup formed of a maple leaf. One tree will afford about a pound and a half of manna every season, which usually sells at the rate of 4s. per pound.—In some of the maritime tracts of the S, liquorice is collected in great quantities, and the roots are now generally exported in their natural state.—In Abruzzo, and of late also in Lombardy, saffron is an article of considerable attention to the peasantry.—A great variety of medicinal herbs are produced in the mountains of the Marsi in Abruzzo-Ultra, which are annually frequented by apothecaries from the most distant parts of the country.—The aloe grows abundantly in Terra di Otranto and other provinces in the S of Italy; and, besides its medicinal juice, attempts have been made, with considerable success, to manufacture a useful thread from its leaves.—The Indian-fig, the carob-tree, the caper-bush, the cornelian-cherry, the bead-tree, the storax-tree, are very commonly met with in the fields and uncultivated tracts. The oleander, the myrtle, the laburnum, the jasmine, the Judas-tree, the Spanish-broom, the bean-trefoil, the Provence-rose, the cinnamon-rose, the syringa, the laurustinus, the bay, the laurel, the lilac, are a few of the flowering shrubs which adorn the Italian scenery. Lavender, rosemary, rice, sumach, sage, euphorbia, tree-heath, arbutus,



campanula, and a multitude of interesting botanical beauties, abound in its varied surface. The natural vegetation is, in most places, remarkably luxuriant. The Spanish-reed rises to a height which almost emulates the bamboo of India; and the *Ferula communis* of Linnæus grows to the length of 12 ft. Its branches are gathered as fodder for asses, but are said to be hurtful to all other animals; and its stem is used for making chicken-coops, bird-cages, hurdles for packing sheep, and other similar articles. The mountains are generally clothed with wood of every European species; in Apulia, particularly, are many forests of immense extent.

*Animals.*] The horses of I. are of little reputation, and few are reared in the country, except in the ancient *Japygia*, now the provs. of Bari and Otranto. Formerly the Neapolitan horses were much celebrated, and formed a valuable article of exportation. The Calabrian horses are handsome in shape, spirited in their motions, and capable of enduring great fatigue; but are in general of a small size, and seldom free from vice.—Very little attention is paid to the breeding of cattle throughout I. in general, though the labours of husbandry are so uniformly carried on by means of oxen. In Lombardy and Tuscany, the cows are generally of a blood-red colour, and long lank figure, but the oxen of a gray colour, moderate size, good shape, gentle disposition, and great strength. The breed is kept up by regular importation from Switzerland. Considerable quantities of cattle are reared in Abruzzo and Calabria. De Salis describes a beautiful breed in Otranto, with small heads, short legs, long carcasses, the oxen of which, in particular, were of remarkable size, and majestic appearance, with sparkling eyes, enormous dewlaps, and hinder parts greatly resembling those of a lion. Little butter is made in any district of Italy, as oil is so much in use everywhere, but the milk is employed in making cheese, sherbets, &c.—I. is the only country of Europe in which the buffalo is found. Great droves of them are fed in the extensive marshes along the coast of the Mediterranean sea, from Salerno to Piana-di-Calabria, particularly upon the banks of the Garigliano and the N plains of the Terra di Lavoro. They are of a black colour, ferocious aspect, yet easily tamed, and very submissive to the drivers. They are seldom used for draught, except in conveying timber from the forests of Calabria. Their flesh, which is extremely fat and rancid, is eaten chiefly by the lower classes of the people; the chine being the only part that comes to the tables of the wealthy.—The sheep in Puglia are large, and in Otranto are almost universally of a black colour. The white breed, whose beautiful fine white wool was so much admired by the ancients, and which are known by the name of *pecore gentili*, are almost quite extinct.—Swine are fed in large herds in the forests, especially in Calabria. In the S provs., these animals are almost universally of a black colour, and without any hair on their skin, which bears a considerable resemblance to that of the elephant.—In the Apennines, the wild boar is sufficiently common, and is hunted with a lurcher and two or three mastiffs, the huntsman keeping on horse-back, and being armed with a lance and pistols. In Puglia, stags are numerous, particularly in the royal forests. The marmot and the ibex are also reckoned among the wild animals of the Apennines; and the crested porcupine is supposed to be peculiar to the S of Italy. Dormice, which, in the times of ancient Rome, were kept in warrens, and fattened for the tables of epicures, are still accounted delicate game in the S districts, and are caught with sheep-hooks, after being smoked out of their nests in hollow trees. But the most remarkable of the wild animals of Italy

is the lynx, or tiger-cat, which is most frequent in the mountains of Abruzzo, and is peculiarly fierce, swift, and subtle. It is from 18 to 20 in. high, and above 25 in. in length to the root of the tail; of a whitish colour, with yellow spots like stars, with soft short hair, and a large head like that of a tiger.—Among the most curious of the feathered race in this country, may be mentioned the little falcon of Malta, the *Certhia muraria*, the *Turdus roseus*, the *Cyanus*, and the *Alauda spinoletta*. All kinds of wild fowl, usually denominated game, are abundant; particularly ducks and snipes, which frequent the marshy tracts. Great quantities of quails and stock-doves are taken by means of nets placed across the defiles, through which they pass in their annual flights. Of the former, 60,000 are said to be taken annually in the island of Capri alone.—Snakes, and particularly asps, are frequent in many of the S provs.; the latter abound chiefly on such of the calcareous mountains as are covered with fragrant aromatics. The *Lacerta orbicularis* is peculiar to the kingdom of Naples. The famous tarantula spider is an inhabitant of the Tarentine fields; but its bite has not been found, on experiment, to produce the effects ascribed to it.—The finny tribe, which frequent the coasts of I., are extremely numerous, and the fisheries, particularly on the S shores, furnish a great proportion of the food of the inhabitants. The people of Taranto may be said to depend entirely on their fisheries, and pay immense sums annually to the Crown and to private persons for the right of fishing. The most remarkable and productive of the Italian fisheries is that of the tunny, which enter the Mediterranean about the vernal equinox, and, steering along the European shores, repair to the seas of Greece to deposit their spawn, returning in May in a direction which brings them nearer the African coast. About that time, they abound on the S shore of Italy, and in autumn steer northward to Amalfi and Naples; but stragglers are occasionally caught through the whole year. The quantity of this fish consumed annually in the two Sicilies, is said to exceed all calculation. From the beginning of May to the end of October, they are eaten fresh, and are used in a salted state all the rest of the year. Shell-fish are, if possible, still more various and abundant; a hundred different kinds have been enumerated in the Mare Piccolo alone. Of these, mussels and oysters are the most valuable. The velvet mussel, or *Cozza nera*, as it is called by the Italians, is universally esteemed for its delicacy, and nearly 10,000 cantara of them are said to be annually taken in the Mare Piccolo, into which they are carefully transplanted in beds. The oysters of Taranto are considered as the most excellent in Europe, and during the winter season are sent in large hampers overland to Naples. The scallop also is large and fat on the S coast. The *murex purpurea* may likewise be mentioned as the shell-fish which is supposed to have furnished the Tarentines with their finest purple dye. But the most curious of all the testaceous tribe on these shores is the *Pinna marina* one of the mussel species, which frequently exceeds 2 ft. in length, and throws out a large tuft of silky threads, which float about as a snare to allure small fish. This shell-fish is torn from the rock sands and for the sake of its bunch of silk, called *lanapeina*, which is sold in its crude state for about 5s. 6d. a-pound, and forms a valuable article of manufacture.

*Minerals.*] The mineralogy of I., particularly its volcanic products, would furnish a very extensive and interesting subject, but far beyond the compass of our present limits. The richest mineralogical region is Piedmont, which almost rivals the Carpathian mountains in Hungary; next to Piedmont, is the Milanese territory, particularly around Sienna; but

its mines have been almost entirely neglected.—Gold is found in the superior regions near Macugnana, and in the vale of Sesia; and the torrent of Evensona rolls down pebbles of quartz veined with this precious metal. Silver occurs in the valleys of Sesia and Aosta, and between Reggio and Scilla. There are rich iron mines in Sessera, Susa, Tuscany, Vermenagna, and Abruzzo-Ultra, and in the island of Elba. Copper mines are very numerous in the district of Aosta in Piedmont; it is found also in the Milanese territory, and in the Massa district of Tuscany. Antimony, arsenic, and zinc occur along with copper and lead in some of the silver mines; and plumbago, or black lead, near the baths of Binay. There are several mines of alum in the Ecclesiastical territory, which are generally found near the surface, particularly in the mountains of Tolfa. Native sulphur is very abundant, especially in Sicily and in the volcanic regions of the S. Coal is not unknown, and a vein of excellent quality has been discovered near the source of the Garigliano, and in the Papal states in various quarters. In Calabria there are mountains of rock-salt. In the neighbourhood of Taranto are two salt lakes, one of which is nearly 8 m. in circumf. during winter, when filled with water. The salt-works of Volterra produce 18,000,000 lbs. per ann. There are also several salt-pits in the Papal territory, particularly at Servia and Ostia. The borax lagunes of Tuscany are spread over a surface of 30 m., and produce from 7,000 to 8,000 lbs. of borax per day. The calcareous combinations form the prevailing feature in the Italian mountains, and their volcanic productions. Limestone is the general base of the hills in the S. Beautiful marbles, of various hues, are found in the Genoese and Tuscan territories.

*Manufactures.*] Little progress has been made in I., in any branch of manufacture, in modern times. The Italians are dependent for most articles of manufacturing industry upon England, Germany, France and Switzerland. The tradesmen who are found in the towns are but indifferent workmen, and generally inferior to those of other countries. It is in the Fine arts, and all that belongs to these, that the Italians are most distinguished; and no country in Europe has produced so many famous artists. The goldsmiths and jewellers of I. work with great taste; and though their glass manufactures are now surpassed by those of Great Britain and Germany, their spectacles, telescopes, and barometers, still preserve their ancient reputation. I. taught Europe the growing of silk,—an art which had been brought to that country from Byzantium by King Roger in 1130. Genoa, Florence, Milan, Turin, and Venice, in the Middle ages, produced the finest gold and silver brocades, damasks, velvets, silk stockings, and ribbons; and these articles are still manufactured in I., but not in the same quantity, and not so good as in other countries. The glass and mirror manufactures of Venice have outlived their ancient reputation; and china and stoneware, though invented in I., are manufactured to greater advantage in France, Germany, and England. Iron is well wrought in the neighbourhood of Brescia. Paper is good, and parchment excellent. The soap of Venice, in which only the finest soda and oil are used, is much esteemed.

*Commerce.*] There was a time when I. flourished in all the arts of peace. The fleets of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa covered all seas; and all the riches of the world as then known were brought by way of I. to the European market. This flourishing epoch of Italian commerce lasted through the whole of the Middle ages; but the commerce of I. declined rapidly after that Vasco-de-Gama had discovered a passage round the Cape. I. has comparatively little

active external commerce at this moment. Its interior commerce, though more animated, is nevertheless subjected to many vexatious restraints which check its extension. Among these are the jealousy which subsists between the different states, and the badness and insecurity of the roads in many parts. The chief articles of exportation are silk, rice, fruit, oil, salt, borax, sulphur, wheat, musical instruments, colours, antiques, and paintings. The importations consist of almost all kinds of manufactured productions, colonial merchandise, iron, lead, fish, and cattle. The following table shows the amount of trade at several ports in the years named:

	Imports.	Exports.
Tuscany, 1840,	£2,928,000	£1,856,400
{Genoa, 1839,	4,271,300	2,677,596
{Sardinia, 1839,	280,000	210,000
{Ancona, 1841,	1,024,000	600,000
{Civita Vecchia, 1840,	428,400	115,280
{Rome,	544,500	60,600
{Fiume, 1841,	25,277	16,267
{Trieste,	2,236,753	1,123,975
{Venice,	855,171	814,064

*Railroads.*] After long hesitation, the majority of the Italian states are now actively employed in the construction of railroads. A line from Milan to Monza, 8 m. in length, and another from Venice to Padua, 20 m. in length, have been working for several years. From Monza, a line has been pushed forward to Como, 19½ m. A line from Padua to Vicenza, 18½ m., and another from Milan to Triviglio, 19 m., was in operation in 1846. The Livorno and Pisa line, opened in 1844, is 12½ m. in length; and has been pushed onwards from Pisa to Pontedera and Florence. A line has also been executed from Sienna to Empoli. In the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, a line from Naples, by Portici, to Castellamare and Nocera, 26 m. in length, and another from Naples to Capua, by Caserta, 23 m. in length, was working in 1846. Charles Albert projected the formation of a line of railroad from Genoa to Turin, passing through Novi, Alexandria, and the valley of Danaro, with a branch towards Domellina, Novaro, and the Lago Maggiore, crossing the Po at Valencia. This line is now in operation between Turin and Arquata, a distance of 80 m. It is proposed to connect this line with Roschach on the lake of Constanx, crossing the Lukmanier mountain. If an average speed of only 15 m. per hour is supposed, on account of the Lukmanier [alt. 5,560 ft. above the level of the sea], the distance between the Mediterranean and the lake of Constanx will be traversed in 20 hours. The time at present required for the journey, even with the extra post, is 78 hours. This projected railway will become a more important one when the branch-line from Magadino, or Bellinzona, to Lugan, is laid down, because the ground will be prepared, as it were, for a speedy communication with Milan, thence by the Lombardo-Venetian railway with Venice and the Adriatic. When this last undertaking is completed, the entire distance from Venice to the lake of Constanx will be traversed in 26 hours. If, moreover, the railway from Constanx to Waldshut, in connection with the Swiss north line,—the Zurich and Basle,—is carried into execution, as it undoubtedly will be, or the one through the Kinzig valley, from Schaffhausen or Waldshut to Offenburg, the distance from Venice to Mannheim will be traversed in 42 or 44 hours; to Cologne, in 56; and to London, at the highest calculation, in 80. In Tuscany a line has been executed from Pistoja to Lucca and Pisa, through the valley of Nievole; and another from Pistoja to Florence. In the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, a railway from Milan to Treviglio, 28½ m. in length, and one between Venice, Verona, and Mantua, are now working. An important railway treaty was concluded between Rome, Austria, and Tuscany, in June 1851, whereby these Powers agree upon the construction of a railway, to be named 'the Railroad of Central Italy,' and that, commencing on one side at Piacenza, will proceed by Parma to Reggio, and on the other, starting from Mantua, will likewise proceed to Reggio, and from thence by Modena and Bologna to Pistoja or Prato, as the passage of the Apennines may be found either more easy or less expensive, and will join at one or the other of these towns the Tuscan lines of railway. The Austrian government binds itself to terminate its own railroads as far as Piacenza and Mantua, and at the same time to connect them with the railway of Central Italy. The Royal government of Tuscany likewise promises to finish its own railroads from Pistoja to Lucca, and from Pistoja to Florence, if not previously to, at any rate contemporarily with, the new central railway of Italy.

*Population.*] The population of I. has been supposed to have amounted to 36,000,000 in the reign of Augustus Cæsar. But when we consider that slavery is hostile to agriculture and to population, and that Roman agriculture was chiefly carried on by slaves, and add to this the consideration of the social and civil wars which for more than seventy years devastated I., and of the moral dissipation and

debauched celibacy that succeeded the comparatively severe and sober manners of a former age, the supposition of such an extensive pop. appears to be destitute of truth. Strabo, Virgil, and Lucan—who all flourished about the period in question, and must be considered as eye-witnesses of what they affirm—admit the fact of a decreased pop. The elder Pliny, who flourished under Trajan, estimates the Italian pop. at only 14,000,000. I. is perhaps as populous now as at any period of its history, although some parts of it, as the neighbourhood of Rome, and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, are less so than they are known to have been in ancient times. The pop. of I. Proper in 1826 was 19,884,100; in 1838, about 22,000,000; in 1851, at about 26,000,000. Taking the total area of Italy at 120,000 British sq. m., Senistori estimated the average density of the pop. at about 188 per sq. m. in 1840. The Sardinian states are the least densely peopled; while the duchy of Lucca presents the densest pop. This pop. may be considered as composed of only one nation,—the Italians; for the few Greeks living on the coasts of the Adriatic and in Sicily,—the Germans who are found in some parts of the Austro-Italian states,—and the Jews who are dispersed throughout this country, do not exceed at the utmost 200,000.—The Italians are not one of the primitive tribes of Europe; they are the descendants of a motley mixture of Gauls, Germans, Arabs, and other nations, who have at different times invaded this country, and mingled with the aborigines. Their complexion is in general dark, though occasionally, particularly in the N districts, very fair complexions are found amongst them. Their features are regular and expressive; their motions lively; their eyes bright and animated; the hair is in general dark, but often auburn, or even quite fair. The women have black or auburn hair; but in the N of Italy, as in Lombardy and Geneva, fair hair is common. They have expressive eyes, regular features, and a very fine complexion, but are rather pale than coloured, and their freshness and beauty fade sooner away than is common with their sisters in the north. The Italians possess every element essential to render them one of the first nations of Europe; it is entirely owing to the misgovernment under which their beautiful country has laboured for many generations, that they are so much behind other nations in political and moral rank. “The temper of the lower Italians, their customs, and their morality, present, even in the same persons, contradictions of the most curious kind. The impression which the hasty traveller receives is almost unavoidably unfavourable. In visiting the northern lakes, he is surrounded by as mercenary a race as those who inhabit the other show-countries of Europe. From Lombardy to Calabria, if he travels with a display of wealth, he is passed from hand to hand, through a series of postmasters, postboys, couriers, innkeepers, shopkeepers, and valets-de-place, who successively try which can cheat him most. Inclination or curiosity may unfortunately lead him into those scenes of debauchery, which, in Italy, are nowhere glaring except at Naples; and if, on his way to the luxurious city, he happens to be robbed in the Pontine marshes, his experience of low life is completed. And yet his harsh opinion of the people would be utterly unjust. If he were to reside long among them, and mix familiarly with the labouring classes, either in country or in town, allowing their character room to develop itself, he would be not unlikely to commit injustice the opposite way. That class of men who revenge their nation on foreigners by universal though petty spoliation, will not, indeed, improve much on farther acquaintance (although even their cheating is oddly limited by a few traditional

rules); and the general character can scarcely be estimated fairly in any districts much frequented by travellers. But the observer will discover honesty and purity even in the towns; in the country he will have difficulty in detecting anything else; and everywhere, when he has contrived to step within the line of separation, he will be met by a warmth of heart, an originality and independence of character, a picturesqueness of ideas, and, in several provinces, a marked fertility of wit, which will inspire him with true affection for the fallen nation, and make it no easy task for him to represent their faults clearly either to himself or others.” The Italians are more fond of the elegant arts than the abstract sciences. Their nobility and gentry live mostly in town, and lay out their money more frequently upon fine houses, gardens, pictures, paintings, and statues, than on luxurious tables. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs. In common with their continental neighbours, they delight in masquerades, villegiaturas, concerts, games of chance, horse-races, and conversazioni or assemblies. The crime of assassination—so often imputed as a national vice to the Italians—is not so common as has been pretended, and prevails more or less in all southern countries; but this crime has been much checked of late, and deliberate murder is seldom committed in I. The climate, not only by the effect it has upon the bodily feelings, but also by the great facility with which the first necessities of life are procured, operates as a check upon industrial activity in I., and leads all classes to indulge too greatly in the *dolce far niente*,—“the sweetness of doing nothing,” as they very expressively say. The genius of poets and painters is naturally developed in this fine country. The Italians are passionately fond of music, and their taste for it seems more delicate than that of any other nation.—The dress of the lower classes is national, picturesque, and becoming, and varies according to the different districts of the country.

*Religion.*] The Roman Catholic religion is established throughout I., and is here exhibited in all its magnificence. Protestant communities are only to be found in some of the valleys of Piedmont, and in one or two of the larger cities, where they labour under very hard restrictions; yet in general the Italians are far from being intolerant. Freedom of conscience is indeed sanctioned by law only in the Lombardo-Venetian states, but it is *de facto* established everywhere; and Protestants, Greeks, and even Mahomedans, may approach the head of the Catholic church. The small number of Greeks living in I. are united with the church of Rome. The clergy are very numerous. The number of bishoprics in I. formerly exceeded that of the whole Christian community in other parts of the world; but it has been greatly reduced. The churches are in general wealthy, and ornamented with the most splendid productions of art; and the rites of worship are performed with great pomp.

*Language.*] The origin of the beautiful Italian language is lost in darkness. The very general idea that it has been formed by a mixture of the Latin, as we have it still in the works of ancient authors, with the dialects of the barbarian invaders of I., seems erroneous. The Latin of Cicero and Horace was only the written language of the Romans, and not that of the people, which must have more or less differed from it; and that the written language itself should have suffered corruption from a mixture with barbarous dialects cannot be presumed, when we consider the truly admirable purity with which the ancient Roman continued to be written in the earlier period of the Middle Ages, and long before the revival of classic literature. When the language of common life underwent an entire transformation at the invasion of the northern tribes, besides the new dialects which now sprung into existence, a new written language also was gradually formed, though the ancient Roman still continued to be written. The formation of this new written language, however, made but slow progress, as poets and scholars long despised it, considering the



use of it as a barbarous apostasy from the Latin. The present state of the Italian language, and of the different dialects, supports this opinion. In no part of I. is that idiom, of which the exquisite harmony acts like a spell upon us, even in the most insignificant literary productions, spoken in its purity as the language of the people; and it is a great error to believe that the language of Boccaccio is to be heard from the lips of the Tuscan peasants. Even the dialect of Tuscany itself has its peculiarities, in which it differs from the language of Italian literature. Accidental circumstances only, Florence being the native place of some of the great masters of Italian literature in latter times, and some of the academies formed at Florence, particularly that of *la Crusca*, having assumed a kind of literary dictatorship, have raised the Tuscan dialect—which on account of its harsh guttural sounds is rather disliked by other Italians—to a leading place amongst the others. Modern Italian approaches nearer to the Latin language, and bears a closer resemblance to its illustrious parent, than its twin-sisters the French and Spanish. No resemblance can be traced between the soft and harmonious Italian, and the rough and discordant sounds of the northern tribes; and all that Italian barbarism has borrowed from barbarous dialects, or from unknown sources, does not, according to the learned Muratori, exceed 1,000 words. All modern dialects admit its superior charms; and the genius of music has chosen it for the vehicle of her most melodious accents. All its sounds are open and labial. It flows naturally from the organs, and requires nothing more than time and expansion to give it utterance. No grouped consonants stop its progress, no indistinct murmurs choke its closes; it glides from the lips with facility, and delights the ear with its fulness, its softness, and its melody. As to the want of energy in Italian, it is a complaint which a person may make who has never read Dante, Ariosto, or Tasso, who in energy of diction and sentiment yield only to Homer and Virgil. It is pronounced with greatest accuracy and perfection at Rome.

*State of Education.* The means of education provided for the lower classes in I. are, with few exceptions, of the most wretched and inefficient description. The schools are almost exclusively in the hands of the priests, and are miserably conducted. In numerous villages there are no schools at all; and among the common people the proportion of those who are able to read is very small. In Tuscany, indeed, something has been done of late to improve popular education, but even there it still remains entirely in the hands of the priests. No country has perhaps so many of the higher seminaries and establishments for education as I.; but nowhere are they in a state of worse organization. In the colleges, lyceums, and gymnasia, teaching is still conducted according to the most antiquated system, and the branches of study are almost entirely limited to the dead languages and logic; even mathematics are everywhere wretchedly taught, and most of its professors, if not all, are priests. The universities, too, with a few exceptions, are very ill-managed. The following universities are now existing in I., viz.: Salerno, founded in 1100; Bologna, 1119; Naples, 1224; Padua, 1228; Rome, 1248; Perugia, 1307; Pisa, 1329; Sienna, 1330; Pavia, 1361; Turin, 1400; Parma, 1422; Florence, 1443; Catania, 1445; Cagliari, re-established in 1769; Sassari, 1765; and Genoa, founded in 1783. The university of Modena has also been re-established. There is no general academy of science, but numerous literary associations exist in all the principal towns. The *Accademia della Crusca* at Florence is one of the most celebrated. There are a number of splendid libraries in I., particularly rich in manuscripts, but very deficient in modern literature. The largest libraries are the library of the university of Turin, the library of the university of Genoa, the library of Brera, and the Ambrosiana at Milan, the Capitolare at Verona, St. Mark's at Venice, the ducal library of Parma, the ducal library of Modena, the public library at Ferrara, the municipal library of Ravenna; two libraries at Bologna, the pontifical and the municipal; two large libraries in Florence, the Magliabecchiana and the Medicean; two libraries at Rome, the Minerva and the Vatican; one at Naples, the royal library; and one at Palermo, the municipal library. In almost every town of I. there are public libraries freely accessible to the public, but limited by the necessity of

applying for permission to read the forbidden books, over which the church and the government keep a strict watch.

*Ancient history.* The most ancient history of I., like that of all Aborigines, is veiled in mythological darkness. In Upper Italy, or *Gallia Cisalpina* and *Liguria*, as far as to the Rubicon, we find in its earliest history tribes of Gauls, Ligurians, and Iberians. Middle Italy was occupied by the Etrurians and Latin tribes, and the latter early extended into Lower Italy, or *Græcia Magna*, where they were joined, especially in the neighbourhood of the coast, by colonies of Greeks. The earliest traces of civilization existed among the Etrurians, and seems indeed for a series of ages to have been quite peculiar to this people; though the Etrurians themselves were but a motley tribe of Iberians, ancient Gauls and Pelasgæ, their institutions were afterwards, with different political modifications, introduced into Rome. Traditions of constant wars between the small tribes and states of Italy have been handed down from the mythological age; to these belong the wars in Latium, the pretended arrival of Æneas with his Trojans, the kind reception granted to him by Latinus, king of Latium, whose daughter Lavinia he married, and whom he succeeded after having aided him in the conquest of all Latium. Even the foundation of Rome, a colony of Alba Longa, about the year 753 B.C., which is attributed to the twin brothers Romulus and Remus, descendants of Ascanius, the son of Æneas, and the whole epoch of the Roman kings, embracing a period of 245 years, are veiled in the clouds of mythology, and present many conflicting traditions and hopeless blanks which historians have vainly attempted to reconcile and fill up. [See article *ROME*.] As we give here only a mere outline of the general history of I., we treat of Roman history under the article *ROME* and other heads. The modern history of I. begins with the fall of the Western empire.

*From Odoacer (476) to Alboin (568).* This period comprises the time of the dominion of the Herulians and Rugians, and of the Ostrogothic kingdom. Romulus was the founder of the city that became the mistress of the world; Augustus founded its universal monarchy, and Romulus Augustulus was the name of its last feeble emperor, who was dethroned by his German guards, Odoacer, their leader, assumed the title of 'king of Italy,' and thus this country was separated from the Roman empire. But this valiant barbarian could not communicate a spirit of independence and energy to the degenerate Italians; nothing but an amalgamation with a people in a state of nature could effect their regeneration. Such a people already stood on the frontiers of I. Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, instigated by Zeno, emperor of the East, overthrew (493) the kingdom of Odoacer, and reduced all I. His Goths spread from the Alps to Sicily. In the lagoons of the Adriatic alone, some fugitives, who had fled from the devastations of Attila, and obtained a subsistence as sailors, and by the manufacture of salt, maintained their freedom. Theodoric, who combined the vigour of the north with the cultivation of the south, is justly termed the Great, and, under the name of Dietrich of Bern, has become one of the principal heroes of old German story. But the energy of his people soon yielded to Roman corruption. Totila, for ten years, contested in vain the almost completed conquest with the military skill of Belisarius. He fell in battle in 552, and Teias in 553, after which Italy was annexed to the Eastern empire, under an exarch, who resided at Ravenna. But the first exarch, Narses, a eunuch, sunk under the intrigues of the Byzantine court, and his successor neglected the defence of the passes of the Alps. The country was then invaded by the Lombards, a German people which had emigrated from the Elbe to Pannonia. Under Alboin, they conquered Lombardy, which received its name from them, almost without a blow. Their government was less favourable to the arts and sciences than that of the Goths.

*Period of the Lombard empire.* The kingdom of the Lombards included Upper I., Tuscany, and Umbria. Alboin also created the duchy of Benevento in Lower I., with which he invested Zotto. The whole of Lombardian I. was divided into 30 great fiefs, under dukes, counts, &c., which soon became hereditary. Together with the new kingdom, the confederation of the fugitives in the lagoons still subsisted in undisturbed freedom. The islanders, by the election of their first doge, Anastaso, in 697, established a central government, and the republic of Venice was founded. Ravenna, the seat of the exarch, with Romagnà, the Pentapolis, or the five maritime cities (Rimini, Pesaro, Fano, Sinigaglia, and Ancona), and almost all the coasts of Lower I., where Amalfi and Gaeta had dukes of their own, of the Greek nation, remained unconquered, together with Sicily and the capital, Rome, which was governed by a patrician in the name of the emperor. The slight dependence on the court of Byzantium disappeared almost entirely in the beginning of the eighth century, when Leo the Isaurian exasperated the orthodox Italians, by his attack on images. The cities expelled his officers, and chose consuls and a senate, as in ancient times. The popes, in their efforts to defend the freedom of Rome against the Lombards, forsaken by the court of Byzantium, generally had recourse to the Frankish kings. In consideration of the aid expected against King Astolphus, Pope Stephen III. (753) not only anointed Pepin, who had been made king of the Franks, in 752, with the approbation of Pope Zacharias, but, with the assent of the municipality of Rome, appointed him patrician, as the imperial governor had hitherto been denominated. Charlemagne

made war upon Desiderius, the king of the Lombards, in defence of the Roman church, took him prisoner in his capital, Pavia, united his empire with the Frankish monarchy (774), and eventually gave I. a king in his son Pepin. But his attempts against the duchy of Benevento, the independence of which was maintained by Duke Arichis, and against the republics in Lower I., where Naples, Amalfi, and Gaeta in particular, had become rich by navigation and commerce, were unsuccessful. The exarchate, with the five cities, had already been presented to the Pope by Pepin, in 756, and Charlemagne confirmed the gift, but the secular supremacy of the popes was first completed by Innocent III., about 1200.

*Period of the Carolingians and Interregnum.* Leo III. bestowed on the king of the Franks, on Christmas-day, A. D. 800, the imperial crown of the West, which needed a Charlemagne to raise it from nothing. But dislike to the Franks, whose conquest was looked upon as a new invasion of barbarians, united the free cities, Rome excepted, more closely to the Eastern empire. Even during the lifetime of Charlemagne, Frankish I. was given to his grandson Bernard (810). But, Bernard having attempted to become independent of his uncle, Louis the Debonaire, he was deprived of the crown, and his eyes were torn out. I. now remained a constituent part of the Frankish monarchy, till the partition of Verdun (843), when it was allotted, with the imperial dignity, and what was afterwards called Lorraine, to Lothaire I., eldest son of Louis. Lothaire left the government (850) to his son Louis II., the most estimable of the Italian princes of the Carolingian line. After his death (875), I. became the apple of discord to the whole family. Charles the Bald of France first took possession of it, and, after his death (877), Carloman, king of Bavaria, who was succeeded, in 880, by his brother Charles the Fat, king of Suabia, who united the whole Frankish monarchy for the last time. His dethronement (887) was the epoch of anarchy and civil war in Italy. Berengarius, duke of Friuli, and Guido, duke of Spoleto (besides the marquises of Ivrea, the only ones remaining of the 30 great vassals), disputed the crown between them. Guido was crowned king and emperor, and, after his death (894), his son Lambert. Arnold, the Carolingian king of the Germans, enforced his claims to the royal and imperial crown of I. (896), but, like most of his successors, was able to maintain them only during his residence in the country. After the death of Lambert and Arnold (898 and 899), Louis, king of Lower Burgundy, became the competitor of Berengarius I.; and this bold and noble prince, although crowned king in 894, and emperor in 915, did not enjoy quiet till he had expelled the emperor Louis III. (905), and vanquished another competitor, Rodolph of Upper Burgundy: he was even then unable, on account of the feeble condition of the state, to defend the kingdom effectively against the invasions of the Saracens (from 890) and the Hungarians (from 899). After the assassination of Berengarius (924), Rodolph II. relinquished his claims to Hugh, count of Provence, in exchange for that country. Hugh sought to strengthen an insecure throne by a bloody tyranny. His nephew, Berengarius, marquis of Ivrea, fled from his snares to Otho the Great of Germany (940), assembled an army of fugitives, returned, and overthrew Hugh (945), who was succeeded by his son Lothaire. Berengarius became his first counsellor. But, after the death of Lothaire, in 950 (poisoned), it was said, by Berengarius, the latter wished to compel his widow—the beautiful Adelaide—contrary to her inclination, to marry his son. Escaping from his cruelty and her prison, she took refuge in the castle of Canossa, where she was besieged by Berengarius II. She now applied for aid to Otho I., king of Germany, who passed the Alps, liberated her, conquered Pavia, king of the Franks and Lombards (in 951), and married Adelaide. To a prompt submission, and the cession of Friuli, the key of Italy, which Otho gave to his brother Henry, Berengarius was indebted for permission to reign as the vassal of Otho. But, the nobles of I. preferring new complaints against him, 10 years after, Otho returned (961), deposed him, and led him prisoner to Bamberg, and, after having been himself crowned king of I. with the iron crown, in 961, united this kingdom with the German. Otho gave the great imperial fiefs to Germans, and granted to the Italian cities privileges that were the foundation of a free constitution, for which they soon became ripe. The growing wealth of the papal court, owing to the munificence of the French kings, which had promoted their influence on the government, so beneficial under Leo IV., and popes of a similar character, became, through the corruption of the Roman court, in the 10th century, the first cause of its decline. The clergy and the people elected the popes according to the will of the consuls and a few patricians. In the first half of the 10th cent., two women disposed of the holy chair. Theodora, elevated (914) her lover, John X., and Murozia, the daughter of Theodora, elevated her son, John XI., to the papal dignity. The brother of the latter, Alberic of Camerino, and his son Octavian, were absolute masters of Rome, and the last was pope, under the name of John XII., when 20 years of age (956). Otho the Great, whom he had crowned emperor in Rome, in 962, deposed him, and chose Leo VIII. in his stead; but the people, jealous of its right of election, chose Benedict V. From this time the popes, instead of ruling the people of Rome, became dependent on them. In Lower I., the republics of Naples, Gaeta, and Amalfi still defended their independence against the Lombard duchy of Benevento, with the more ease, since the duchy had been divided (839) between Siconolphus of Salerno and Radelghisius of Benevento, and subsequently among a greater number, and since with the dukes they had had a common enemy in

the Saracens, who had been previously invited over from Sicily by both parties (about 830), as auxiliaries against each other, but who had settled and maintained themselves in Apulia. The emperors Louis II. and Basilus Macedo had, with combined forces, broken the power of the Mahomedans (866); the former was nevertheless unable to maintain himself in Lower I., but the Greeks, on the contrary, gained a firmer footing, and formed of the regions taken from the Saracens a separate province, called the Thema of Lombardy, which continued under their dominion, though without prejudice to the liberty of the republics, upwards of a hundred years, being governed by a catapan (governor-general) at Bari. Otho the Great himself did not succeed in driving them altogether from Italy. The marriage of his son, Otho II., with the Greek princess Theophania, put an end to his exertions for this purpose, as did the unfortunate battle at Basentello to the similar attempts renewed by Otho II. (980).

*The dominion of the German kings.* In opposition to the designs of the count of Tusculum, who sought to supplant the absent emperor at Rome, a noble Roman, the consul Crescentius, attempted to govern Rome under the semblance of her ancient liberty (980). Otho II., king since 973, occupied with his projects of conquest in Lower I., did not interfere with this administration, which became formidable to the vicious popes Boniface VII. and John XV. But when Otho III., who had reigned in Germany since 983, raised his kinsman Gregory V. to the papedom, Crescentius caused the latter to be expelled, and John XVI., a Greek, to be elected by the people. He also endeavoured to place Rome again under the nominal supremacy of the Byzantine empire. Otho, however, reinstated Gregory, besieged Crescentius in the castle of St. Angelo, took him prisoner, and caused him to be beheaded with 12 other noble Romans (998). But the Romans again threw off their allegiance to the emperor, and yielded only to force. On the death of Otho III. (1002), the Italians considered their connexion with the German empire as dissolved. Harduin, marquis of Ivrea, was elected king, and crowned at Pavia. This was a sufficient motive for Milan, the enemy of Pavia, to declare for Henry II. (in Italy, I.) of Germany. A civil war ensued, in which every city, relying on its walls, took a greater or less part. Henry was chosen king of I. by the nobles assembled in Pavia; but disturbances arose, in which a part of the city was destroyed by fire (A. D. 1004). Not till after Harduin's death (1015) was Henry recognised as king by all Lombardy; he was succeeded by Conrad II. (in Italy, I.). At a diet held at Roncaglia, near Piacenza, in 1037, Conrad made the fiefs hereditary by a fundamental law of the empire, and endeavoured to give stability and tranquillity to the state, but without success. The cities (which were daily becoming more powerful) and the bishops were engaged in continual quarrels with the nobility, and the nobility with their vassals, which could not be repressed. Republican Rome, under the influence of the family of Crescentius, could be reduced to obedience neither by Henry II. and Conrad II. nor by the popes. When Henry III. (in Italy, II.), the son and successor of Conrad (1039), entered Italy (1046), he found three popes in Rome, all of whom he deposed, appointed in their stead Clement II., and ever after filled the papal chair by his own authority with virtuous German ecclesiastics. This reform gave the popes new consequence, which afterwards became fatal to his successor. Henry died in 1056. During the long minority of his son Henry IV. (in Italy, III.), the policy of the popes, directed by the monk Hildebrand (afterwards Gregory VII.), succeeded in creating an opposition which soon became formidable to the secular power. The Normans also contributed to this result. As early as 1016, warriors from Normandy had established themselves in Calabria and Apulia. Allies sometimes of the Lombards, sometimes of the republics, sometimes of the Greeks against each other and against the Saracens, they constantly became more powerful by petty wars. The great preparations of Leo IX. for their expulsion terminated in his defeat and capture (1053). On the other hand, Nicholas II. united with the Norman princes, and in 1059 invested Robert Guiscard with all the territories conquered by him in Lower Italy. From that time the pope, in his conflicts with the imperial power, relied on the support of his faithful vassal the duke of Apulia and Calabria, to which Sicily was soon added. While the small states of the south were thus united into one large one, the kingdom in the north was dissolving into smaller states. The Lombard cities were laying the foundation of their future importance. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa were already powerful. The Pisanese, who in 980 had given to Otho II. efficient aid against the Greeks in Lower I. and in 1005 boldly attacked the Saracens there, ventured, in connexion with the Genuese (no less warlike and skilled in navigation), to assail the infidels in their own territory, and twice conquered Sardinia (1017 and 1050) which they divided into several large fiefs, and distributed them among their principal citizens.

*Struggles of the Popes and Republics with the Emperors.* Gregory VII. humbled Henry IV. in 1077. Urban II. instigated the emperor's own sons against their father. Conrad, the eldest, was crowned king of Italy in 1093, after whose death (1101) Henry, the second son, succeeded in deposing his father from the imperial throne. Henry V., the creature of the Pope, soon became his opponent; but, after a severe conflict, concluded with him the concordate of Worms (1129). A main point, which remained unsettled, gave rise to new difficulties in the 12th and 13th cents.—the estate of Matilda, marchioness of Tuscany, who (died 1115) by a will, the validity of which was disputed by the emperor, bequeathed all her property to the papal see. Meanwhile, in the S.

the Norman state (1130), under Roger I, was formed into a kingdom, from the ruins of republican liberty and of the Greek and Lombard dominion. In the small republics of the N, the government was in most cases divided between the consuls, the lesser council (*credenza*), the great council, and the popular assembly (*parlamento*). Petty feuds developed their youthful energies. Such were those that terminated with the destruction of Lodi by Milan (1111), and the ten years' siege of Como by the forces of all the Lombard cities (1118-1128). The subjugation of this city rendered Milan the first power in Lombardy, and most of the neighbouring cities were her allies. Others formed a counter alliance with her antagonist, Pavia. Disputes between Milan and Cremona were the occasion of the first war between the two unions (1129), to which the contest of Lothaire II. and Conrad of Hohenstaufen for the crown, soon gave another direction. This was the origin of the Ghibelines (favourers of the emperor), and the Guefs (the adherents of the family of Guefs, and in general the party of the popes). In Rome the love of liberty, restrained by Gregory VII., rose in proportion as his successors ruled with less energy. The schisms between Gelasius II. and Gregory VIII., Innocent II. and Anacletus II., renewed the hopes of the Romans. Arnold of Brescia, formerly proscribed (1139) for his violent attacks against the luxury of the clergy in that country, was their leader (1146). After eight years, Adrian IV. succeeded in effecting his execution. Frederic I. of Hohenstaufen (called Barbarossa) crossed the Alps six times, in order to defend his possessions in I. against the republicanism of the Lombard cities. Embracing the cause of Pavia as the weaker, he devastated (1154) the territory of Milan, destroyed Tortona, and was crowned in Pavia and Rome. In 1158 he reduced Milan, demolished the fortifications of Piacenza, and held a diet at Roncaglia, where he extended the imperial prerogatives conformably with the Justinian code, gave the cities chief magistrates (*podesta*), and proclaimed a general peace. His rigour having excited a new rebellion, he reduced Crema to ashes (1160), compelled Milan to submission, and having driven out all the inhabitants, demolished the fortifications (1162). Nothing, however, but the terror of his arms upheld his power. When the emperor entered I. (1163) without an army, the cities concluded a union for maintaining their freedom, which in 1167 was converted into the Lombard confederacy. The confederates restored Milan, and to hold in check the Ghibeline city of Pavia, built a new city, called, in honour of the Pope, Alessandria. Neither Frederic's governor, Christian, archbishop of Mentz, nor he himself, could effect anything against the confederacy; the former failed before Ancona (1174), with all the power of Ghibeline Tuscany; and the latter, with the Germans, before Alexandria (1175). He was also defeated by Milan, at Legnano, in 1176. He then concluded a concordate with Alexander III., and a truce with the cities (1176) at Venice, and a peace which secured their independence, at Constance (1183). The republics retained the *podesta* (foreign noblemen, now elected by themselves) as judges and generals. As formerly, all were to take the oath of fealty and allegiance to the emperor. But instead of strengthening their league into a permanent confederacy, they were soon split into new factions, when the designs of the Hohenstaufen on the throne of Sicily drew Frederic and Henry VI. (V.) from Lombardy. The defeat of the united forces of almost all Lombardy, on the Oglio, by the inhabitants of Brescia, though inferior in numbers, is celebrated under the name of *La mala morte* (1197). Among the nobles, the Da Romano were the chiefs of the Ghibelines, and the marquises of Este of the Guefs. During the minority of Frederic II., and the disputes for the succession to the German throne, Innocent III. (Frederic's guardian) succeeded in re-establishing the secular authority of the holy see in Rome and the surrounding country, and in enforcing its claims to the donations of Charlemagne and Matilda. He also brought over almost all Tuscany, except Pisa, to the party of the Guefs (1197). A blind hereditary hatred, rather than a zeal for the cause, inspired the parties; for when a Guef (Otto IV.) ascended the imperial throne, the Guefs became his party, and the Ghibelines the Pope's; but the reversion of the imperial crown to the house of Hohenstaufen, in the person of Frederic II., soon restored the ancient relations (1212). In Florence this party spirit gave pretence and aliment (1215) to the disputes of the Buondelmonti and Donati with the Uberti and Amidei, originating in private causes; and most cities were thus internally divided into Guefs and Ghibelines. The Guef cities of Lombardy renewed the Lombard confederacy in 1226. After the emperor had returned from his crusade (1230), he waged war with varying success against the cities and against Gregory IX., heedless of the excommunication, while Ezzelin da Romano, under the pretence of favouring the Ghibelines, established by every kind of violence his own power in Padua, Verona, Vicenza, and the neighbourhood. The papal court succeeded in seducing the Pisanese family of the Visconti of Gallura in Sardinia from the republic, and rendering them its vassals, notwithstanding the resistance of the republic, and especially of the counts of Gherardesca. Thence Pisa, too, was divided into Ghibelines (Conti) and Guefs (Visconti). Frederic, however, married his natural son, Enzo, to a Visconti, and gave him the title of 'king of Sardinia.' The plan of Gregory IX. to depose Frederic was successfully executed by Innocent IV., in the council of Lyons (1245). This completely weakened the Ghibeline party, which was already nearly undermined by the intrigues of the mendicant orders. The faithful Parma revolted; the triumph of the Ghibelines in Florence (1248) lasted only two years; and their second victory, after the battle of Monte Aperto (1260), gave them the ascendancy but six years.

The Bolognese united all the cities of Italy in a Guef league, and in the battle of the Panaro (1249) took Enzo prisoner, whom they never released. In the Trevisan Mark alone the Ghibelines possessed the supremacy, by means of Ezzelin, till he fell before a crusade of all the Guefs against him (1255). But these contests were fatal to liberty; the house Della Scala followed that of Romano in the dominion, and Milan itself, with a great part of Lombardy, found masters in the house Della Torre. Tyrants everywhere arose; the maritime republics and the republic of Tuscany alone remained free.

*From the fall of the Hohenstaufen to the formation of the modern states.* In this period different princes attempted to usurp the sovereignty of I. After Charles I. of Anjou had become by the favour of the Pope king of Naples, senator of Rome, papal vicar in Tuscany, and had directed his ambition to the throne of I., the names of *Guefs* and *Ghibelines* acquired a new signification: the former denoted the friends, the latter the enemies of the French. To these factions were added in the republics the parties of the nobility and the people, the latter of which was almost universally victorious. A different interest—that of trade and navigation—impelled the maritime republics to mutual wars. The Genoese assisted Michael Palaeologus (1261) to recover Constantinople from the Venetians, and received in return Chios; at Melori they annihilated (1284) the navy of the Pisans, and completed their dominion of the sea by a victory over the Venetians at Curzola (1298). Florence rendered its democracy complete by the banishment of all the nobles (1282), and strengthened the Guef party by wise measures; but a new schism, caused by the insignificant Pistoia, soon divided the Guefs in Florence and all Tuscany into two factions—the Neri (Black) and Bianchi (White) (1300). The latter were almost all expelled by the intrigues of Boniface VIII., and joined the Ghibelines (1302). In Lombardy freedom seemed to have expired, when the people, weary of the everlasting feuds of their tyrants, rose in most of the cities, and expelled them (1302-6), including the Visconti, who had supplanted the Della Torre (1277) in the government of Milan. Henry VII., the first emperor who had appeared in I. for 60 years (1310), restored the princes to their cities, and found general submission to his requisitions, peace among the parties, and homage to the empire. Florence alone undertook the glorious part which she so nobly sustained for two centuries, as the guardian of Italian freedom. The Genoese, tired of the perpetual disputes of the Ghibeline Spinolas and Doria with the Guef Grimaldi and Fieschi, banished all these families in 1339, and made Simon Boccanegra their first doge; but they submitted to John Visconti (1353) who had purchased Bologna from the Pepoli. The Venetians, irritated with Carrara on account of the assistance he had given the Genoese in the war at Chiozza (1379), looked quietly on while John Galeazzo Visconti deprived the Della Scala and Carrara of all their possessions (1387 and 1388), and Florence alone assisted the unfortunate princes. After the extinction of the Visconti (1447), Francis Sforza succeeded in gaining possession of the Milanese state (1450). The Venetians, who aimed at territorial aggrandizement, having formed a connexion with some princes against him, he found an ally in Florence, which, with a change of circumstances, wisely altered her policy. About this time the family of the Medici attained to power in that city by their wealth and talent. Milan (where the Sforza had established themselves), Venice (which possessed half of Lombardy), Florence (wisely managed by Lorenzo Medici), the States-of-the-Church (for the most part restored to the holy see), and Naples (which was incapable of employing its forces in direct attacks on other states), constituted in the 15th cent. the political balance of I., which, during the manifold feuds of these states, permitted no one to become dangerous to the independence of the rest, till 1494, when Charles VIII. of France entered I. Compelled to evacuate Naples and all I., Charles's successor, Louis XII., was more successful against Milan, which, supported by hereditary claims, he subjected in 1500. Caesar Borgia's attempts to acquire the sovereignty of I. were frustrated by the death of his father (1505); when the warlike Pope, Julius II., completed the subjugation of the States-of-the-Church, not indeed for a son or nephew, but in the name of the Holy see. The Medicean popes, Leo X. (1513), and Clement VII. (1523), were bent for the most part on the aggrandizement of their family. Charles V., to whom all I. submitted after the battle of Pavia, frustrated indeed the attempts of Clement VII. to weaken his power, and conquered and pillaged Rome (1527); but being reconciled with the Pope, he raised (1530) the Medici to princely authority. Florence, incensed at the foolish conduct of Pietro towards France, had banished the Medici in 1494, but recalled them in 1512, and was now compelled to take a station among the principalities, under Duke Alexander I. de Medici. Italian policy, of which Florence had hitherto been the soul, from this period is destitute of a common spirit, and the history of I. is therefore destitute of a central point.

*Mutations of the Italian states down to the first French revolution.* After the extinction of the male branch of the marquises of Monteferrat, Charles V. gave that country to the Gonzaga of Mantua (1536). Maximilian II. subsequently (1573) raised Monteferrat to a duchy. The Florentines failed (1537) in a new attempt to emancipate themselves after the murder of Duke Alexander. Cosmo I. succeeded him in the government, by the influence of Charles V. Parma and Piacenza, which Julius II. had conquered for the Papal see, Paul III. erected into a duchy (1545), which he gave to his natural son, Peter Alois Farnese, whose son Ottavio obtained the imperial investiture in 1556. Genoa, subject to the French since 1499, found a deliverer in Andrew Doria (1528).



He founded the aristocracy, and the conspiracy of Fiesco (1547) failed to subvert him. In 1553, besides Milan, Charles V. conferred Naples also on his son Philip II. By the peace of Chateau-Cambresis (1559), Philip II. and Henry II. of France, renounced all their claims to Piedmont, which was restored to its rightful sovereign, Duke Emmanuel Philibert of Savoy. The legitimate male line of the house of Este became extinct in 1597, when the illegitimate Césaro of Este obtained Modena and Reggio from the empire, and Ferrara was confiscated as a reverted fief by the Holy see. In the second half of the 16th cent., the prosperity of Italy was increased by a long peace, as much as the loss of its commerce allowed—Henry IV. of France having, by the treaty of Lyons, ceded Saluzzo, the last French possession in I., to Savoy. The tranquillity continued till the contest for the succession of Mantua and Montferrat, after the extinction of the Gonzaga family (1627). Misfortunes in Germany compelled Ferdinand II. to confer both countries (1631), as a fief on Charles of Nevers, the *protégé* of France, whose family remained in possession till the war of Spanish succession. In the peace of Chierasco (1631) Richelieu's diplomacy acquired also Pignerol and Casale—strong points of support, in case of new invasions of Italy, though he had to relinquish the latter (1637). By the extinction of the house Della Rovere, the duchy of Urbino, with which Julius II. had invested it, devolved, in 1631, to the papal see. In the second half of the 17th cent., the peace of I. was not interrupted, excepting by the attempts of Louis XIV. on Savoy and Piedmont, and appeared to be secured for a long time, by the treaty of neutrality at Turin (1696), when the war of Spanish succession broke out. Austria conquered Milan, Mantua, and Montferrat (1706), retained the two first (Mantua was forfeited by the felony of the duke), and gave the latter to Savoy. In the peace of Utrecht (1714) Austria obtained, moreover, Sardinia and Naples; Savoy obtained Sicily, which it exchanged with Austria for Sardinia, from which it assumed the royal title. Mont Genievre was made the boundary between France and I. The house of Farnese becoming extinct in 1731, the Spanish Infant, Charles, obtained Parma and Piacenza. In the war for the Polish throne of 1733, Charles Emmanuel of Savoy, in alliance with France and Spain, conquered the Milanese territory, and received therefrom, in the peace of Vienna (1738), Novara and Tortona. Charles, Infant of Spain, became king of the Two Sicilies, and ceded Parma and Piacenza to Austria. The Medici of Florence, entitled, since 1575, grand-dukes of Tuscany, became extinct in 1737. Francis Stephen, duke of Lorraine, now received Tuscany by the preliminaries of Vienna, and, becoming emperor in 1745, made it the appanage of the younger line of the Austro-Lorraine house. In the war of Austrian succession, the Spaniards conquered Milan (1745), but were expelled thence by Charles Emmanuel, to whom Maria Theresa ceded, in reward, some Milanese districts, viz. all of Vigevanasco and Bobbio, and part of Anghiera and Pavese. Massa and Carrara fell to Modena, in 1743, by right of inheritance. The Spanish Infant, Don Philip, conquered Parma and Piacenza in his own name, lost them, and obtained them again as a hereditary duchy, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). Thus, in the 18th cent., the houses of Lorraine, Bourbon, and Savoy possessed all I., with the exception of the ecclesiastical territories, Modena and the republics, which, like a superannuated man, beheld with apathy operations in which they had no share. A quiet of forty years ushered in their downfall.

[From the first French revolution to the present time.] In Sept. 1792 the French troops first penetrated into Savoy, and there planted the tree of liberty. The national convention declared war against Naples in Feb. 1793. In April 1794, the French advanced into the Piedmontese and Genoese territories, but were expelled in July 1795, by the Austrians, Sardinians, and Neapolitans. In 1796, Napoleon Bonaparte received the chief command of the French army in I. He forced the king of Sardinia to conclude a treaty of peace, by which the latter was obliged to cede Nizza (Nice) and Savoy to France; conquered Austrian Lombardy, with the exception of Mantua; put the duke of Parma and the Pope under contribution; and struck such consternation into the king of Naples, that he begged for peace. After Mantua had also fallen, in 1797, Bonaparte formed of Milan, Mantua, the portion of Parma north of the Po, and Modena, the Cisalpine republic. France likewise made war on the Pope, and annexed Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, to the Cisalpine republic (1797), by the peace of Tolentino. The French then advanced toward Rome, overthrew the ecclesiastical government, and erected a Roman republic (1798). In Genoa, Bonaparte occasioned a revolution, by which a democratic republic was formed after the model of the French, under the name of the *Ligurian republic*. The French had, meanwhile, penetrated into Austria, through the Venetian territory. The Venetians now made common cause with the brave Tyrolese, who gained advantages over the French in their Alps. Bonaparte, therefore, occupied Venice without striking a blow, and gave the republic a democratic constitution; but, by the peace of Campo-Formio (17th Oct. 1797), the Venetian territory, as far as the Adige, was relinquished to Austria, and the rest incorporated with the Cisalpine republic. The king of Sardinia concluded a treaty of alliance and subsidy with France, October 25, but, in 1798, the directory, assailed in Rome from Naples, deemed it expedient to compel him to resign his territories on the mainland. Notwithstanding its treaty of amity with France, Naples concluded an alliance, in 1798, with England and Russia. The French, therefore, occupied Naples, and erected there the Parthenopean republic. The grand-duke of Tuscany had likewise formed an alliance with Naples and England, and his country

was, in return, compelled by the French to receive, like Piedmont, a military administration. After the congress of Radstadt was broken off, Austria and the German empire, under Russian support, renewed the war against the French, who again left Naples and Rome to the English Russians, and Turks. The king and the Pope returned to their capitals in Lombardy; the French were defeated by the Austrians under Kray and Melas, and by the Russians under Suwarroff, and lost all their fortresses, except Genoa, where Massena sustained a vigorous siege. Bonaparte, now made first consul after his return from Egypt, marched with a new army to I., defeated the Austrians at the memorable battle of Marengo (1800), and compelled them to a capitulation, by which all the Italian fortresses were again evacuated. By the peace of Lunéville, Feb. 9, 1801, the possession of Venice was confirmed to Austria. The duke of Parma received Tuscany, and the title of king of Etruria. Parma was united with France. The Cisalpine and Ligurian republics were guaranteed by Austria and France, and with the Ligurian territories were united the imperial fiefs included within their limits. The king of Naples, who had occupied the states of the church, was obliged to conclude peace at Florence, but by Russian mediation, he escaped with the cession of Piombino, the Stato degli Presidi, and his half of the island of Elba, together with the promise of closing his harbours against the English; the other half of Elba, Tuscany had already relinquished to France. To the republics of Genoa and Lucca the first consul gave new constitutions in 1801; but in January 1802, the Cisalpine republic was transformed into the Italian republic, in imitation of the new French constitution, of which Bonaparte became president. Genoa also received a new constitution; and Piedmont was united with France. After Bonaparte had become emperor, in 1804, he attached (March 17, 1805) the royal crown of I. to the new imperial crown; but promised never to unite the new monarchy with France, and even to give it a king of its own. He appointed his step-son, Eugene Beauharnais, viceroy of Italy; and gave to his sister Eliza the principality of Piombino, and to her husband, Pasquale Baciocchi, the republic of Lucca, as a principality, both as French fiefs. Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, were incorporated with the French empire; and the pope was obliged to sanction the imperial coronation by his presence. Austria now acceded to the alliance of Russia and England against France. Naples, also, again suffered the English and Russians to land. But the success of the Austrian arms was frustrated by the defeats at Ulm and Austerlitz, after which the peace of Presburg (Dec. 26, 1805) completed the French supremacy in Italy. Austrian Venice, with Istria and Dalmatia, was united to the kingdom of Italy; and the French kingdom in I. had now an extent of 35,450 sq. m., with 5,657,000 inhabitants. In the following March Napoleon gave the crown of Naples to his brother Joseph. As the English, however, were masters of the sea, Sicily was secured to King Ferdinand. In 1808, the widow of the king of Etruria, who conducted the regency in behalf of her minor son, was deprived of her kingdom, which was united with France. As Napoleon had, meanwhile, given his brother Joseph the crown of Spain, he filled the throne of Naples with his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat; and in 1809 gave Tuscany to his sister Eliza, of Piombino, with the title of grand-duchess. In the same year, Austria made new exertions to break the excessive power of France; but Napoleon again drove her troops from the field, and appeared once more victorious in Vienna, where he proclaimed the union of the States of the Church with France. Rome now became the second city of the empire, and a pension of 2,000,000 of francs was assigned to the pope. After the peace of Vienna, by which Napoleon acquired the Illyrian provinces, Istria and Dalmatia were separated from the kingdom of I. and attached to them; on the other hand, Bavaria ceded to I. the circle of the Adige, a part of Eisach, and the jurisdiction of Clausen. After the truce of April 21, 1814, the French troops evacuated all I., and most of the provinces were restored to their legitimate sovereigns. The wife of Napoleon, however, the empress Maria Louisa, obtained the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, with reversion to her son; and Napoleon himself became sovereign of Elba, of which he took possession May 4. But, before the congress of Vienna had organized the political relations of Europe, he effected his return to France, March 1, 1815. At the same time, the king of Naples, Murat, abandoned his former ambiguous attitude, and took up arms, as he pretended, for the independence of I. But his appeal was answered by a declaration of war by Austria. Driven from Bologna, and totally defeated by Bianchi Tolentino, he lost his kingdom, was taken prisoner at Pizzo, brought before a court-martial, and shot, Oct. 13, 1815. The congress of Vienna, by act of June 9, 1815, re-arranged the affairs of I.:—1. The king of Sardinia was reinstated in his territories, according to the boundaries of 1792, with some alterations on the side of Geneva; for the portion of Savoy, left in possession of France by the peace of Paris, of May 30, 1814, was restored by the treaty of Paris, of Nov. 20, 1815. To his states was united Genoa, as a duchy, according to the boundaries of that republic in 1792, and contrary to the promises made to Genoa.—2. The emperor of Austria united with his hereditary states the new Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, consisting of the Venetian provinces formerly belonging to Austria, the Valtelline, Bormio, and Chiavenna, separated from the Grisons, besides Mantua and Milan. Istria, however, was united with the Germanic-Austrian kingdom of Illyria; Dalmatia, with Ragusa and Cattaro, constituting a distinct Austrian kingdom.—3. The valley of the Po was adopted as the boundary between the states of the

Church and Parma; otherwise, the boundaries of Jan. 1, 1792, were retained. The Austrian house of Este again received Modena, Reggio, Mirandola, Massa, and Carrara.—4. The empress Maria Louisa received the state of Parma, as a sovereign duchess, but, by the treaty of Paris, of June 10, 1817, only for life, it being agreed that the duchess of Lucca and her descendants should inherit it. Lucca, in that case, falls to the Tuscan dynasty, which, in return, resigns its districts in Bohemia to the duke of Reichstadt.—5. The Archduke Ferdinand of Austria became again grand-duke of Tuscany, to which were joined the Stato degli Presidi, the former Neapolitan part of the island of Elba, the principality of Piombino, and some small included districts, formerly fiefs of the German empire. The prince Buoncompagni Ludovisi retained all his rights of property in Elba and Piombino.—6. The Infanta, Maria Louisa, received Lucca, of which she took possession as a sovereign duchy, 1817, with an annuity of 500,000 francs, till the reversion of Parma.—7. The territories of the Church were all restored, with the exception of the strip of land on the l. bank of the Po; and Austria retained the right of maintaining garrisons in Ferrara and Comacchio.—8. Ferdinand IV. was again recognised as king of the Two Sicilies. England retained Malta, and was declared the protectress of the United Ionian islands. The knights of Malta, who had recovered their possessions in the states of the Church and in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies (in Spain, 1815), for a time made Catania, and, after 1826, Ferrara, their residence. The republic of San Marino, and the prince of Monaco, whose mountain fortress the Sardinians, and, before them, the French, occupied, alone remained unharmed amid the 15 political revolutions which Italy had undergone in the course of 25 years. Austrian predominance was thus more firmly established than ever in I.; but the desire of union and independence was not extinguished among the people; traces of a struggle for a united and liberal government were almost everywhere visible; and several of the governments anxiously endeavoured to protect themselves against secret political societies. The efforts of the most intelligent Italians, from the time of Macchiavelli and Cæsar Borgia, son of Pope Alexander VI., to restore the political unity of their native country, gave rise to numerous secret political societies in I., which in Bologna were called the *Guelfi*; in the Roman and Neapolitan states, the *Patriotti Europei*, and *Carbonari*; in Upper Italy, the *Spilla nera*; in Piedmont and Lombardy, the *Filadelfi* and *Federati*; in Milan, the *Adelfi*. Even the advocates of the illiberal system, or 'the theocratic faction,' as it was termed, which likewise pursued its objects in secret societies, took advantage of the national desire of greater unity in I. It was therefore natural that the idea of connecting the Italian states in a political system similar to the Germanic confederation should have been agitated by the statesmen of the congress of Verona; but it seems to have been entirely given up, and I. was left in the hands of Austria. One leading measure was, to occupy the kingdom of the Two Sicilies and Piedmont, with Austrian armies, which restored the former state of things. But the Austrian troops, 12,000 in number, were gradually removed from Piedmont in 1823; and the fortress of Alessandria was surrendered, Sept. 30, 1823, to Sardinian troops. In the same year, after a new Neapolitan army had been organized in Naples, the Austrian garrison, of 42,000 men, was diminished about 17,000; but the last detachment of Austrians only left the kingdom in 1827.

With the French revolution of 1830, new disturbances broke out in I. In Modena the people rose against the duke; the citizens of Bologna drove away the Papal delegates; and even the ex-empress, Maria Louisa, found it necessary to consult her safety by flight from Parma. On the 26th of February 1831, deputies from all the revolted states united in proclaiming an Italian republic. This movement was speedily crushed by the allied sovereigns, who joined at the same time in recommending certain concessions to the popular demands. These were resisted, however, in the Papal states, and in the early part of 1832 the eastern districts of the Papal dominions were again in insurrection. An Austrian force thereupon entered the country; France, seizing the pretext thus afforded her, took possession of the town and citadel of Ancona in February 1832; nor was it until the autumn of 1838 that both the Austrian and French troops evacuated the Papal states.

A Neapolitan writer, who, although a refugee, appears to us to merit confidence—M. Leopardi—discussing the anxious question of the national independence of this country, thus sketched the moral elements of the long and complicated struggle for the establishment of Italian unity, as they presented themselves to his intelligent and well-informed eye, in the period between the suppression of the movements we have now slightly sketched and the great outbreak of 1848. "Beyond the Alps," says this well-informed writer, "more than elsewhere, the mass of the people—the agricultural and operative classes—are indifferent to political theories. Victims of arbitrary power or bad institutions, they would assuredly be alive to administrative reforms, but then those reforms must come from on high—below, nothing would yet be found but ignorance, apathy, and resignation to the hereditary evils of servitude. All the Italians who are endowed with any nobleness of soul, without doubt think and aspire to raise their humiliated country from its degraded state, but they do not all think and aspire in the same way. Those who equally dread popular movements and Austrian cannon—revolt and intervention—consider that the wisest course is to pin themselves to the skirts of the native princes, and obtain from them concessions sufficient to neutralize foreign influence and to disarm political

passions. This class of men is not the most numerous, but it is the most influential by its rank and its riches. It only wants a little decision and activity in order to play an useful part in the destinies of I. In the second place come those who fear interventions more than risings of the people. Their opinion is, that it is better to await a favourable opportunity for rising in insurrection from one end of the peninsula to the other, and for dragging the governments of I. along with the movement, or overthrowing them. This class, which nearly balances the first, is less opulent, but far more numerous, bold, and intelligent. In the third division present themselves those who deny or willingly brave all kinds of danger, principally young men, as generous as they are inconsiderate, belonging moreover to all classes of society, without excepting the families most devoted to the reigning powers. They would like, without a minute of delay, to hoist the national standard, even though a war with the whole world were to be the consequence. Numerically stronger than the first class, but less strong than the second, devoid of all power but that of impetuous patriotism and personal courage, this 'Young Italy,' as they call themselves, may suffice to seal by martyrdom the legitimacy of the Italian cause, and they would no doubt gloriously aid it in triumphing on the field of battle, but they could not of themselves undertake or complete anything substantial." These remarks doubtless deserve the consideration of all to whom the future destinies of this beautiful country is matter of interest. But the great fact, after all, is that I. never has been in modern times united, and prosperous in that union; that perfect blending of interest and feeling which are necessary to form an Italian nation, and a national cause, are still wanting. Nor perhaps is this to be so deeply regretted, if it be true—as there seems ground to suspect—that centralization is one of the banes of modern civilization. But it is not our province, and our limits forbid, to enter at large on the discussion of this question. We must hasten to sum up, in as many lines, the history of the last six eventful years of Italian history.

In 1846, Pio Nono ascended the Papal throne. Vigorous reforms in the temporal administration of the Pontifical states were immediately commenced, a general amnesty for political offenders proclaimed, and a national guard organized in Rome. The grand-duke of Tuscany, the king of Sardinia, and Louis Philippe, applauded the Papal policy; and even the king of Naples seemed for a moment to be satisfied with it. But the newly-caught spirit thus indicated, alarmed Austria, which poured in troops into Modena and Parma. Meanwhile, symptoms of impending convulsion appeared in Lower Italy. The revolution of Paris in February 1848 lighted the train, and on the 18th of March 1848 the explosion burst forth in Milan. Six days later, a Piedmontese army, commanded by the sovereign, Charles Albert, in person, crossed the Tessin in support of the national cause; and by the first week of April, the popular cause had triumphed in every town of I. except Mantua and Verona. Having invested Mantua, Charles Albert sought to consolidate his power in Upper I. with as little delay as possible. Parma, Piacenza, and Modena voted his sovereignty, but Lombardy and Venice, while also accepting, added such conditions and provisos as induced him to postpone the formal assumption of the title of king of Upper I. Meanwhile Count Radetzky, who had held the chief military command for Austria in I. since 1832, and who had contrived to maintain his position on the Mincio, prepared for offensive movements, and moved without loss from Verona to Mantua; but the fall of the strong fortress of Peschiera, and intelligence of the revolutionary movements on Vienna, compelled him again to fall back on Mantua. By the investment of Mantua, Charles Albert injuriously scattered his force, and the battle of Custoza placed Radetzky on the true line of defence of the Mincio. Charles Albert had now to choose between a retreat on Coito, and an attack on Radetzky's left flank. With the concurrence of General Bava, he chose the latter, and was defeated at Novara, in a battle which fully reinstated Austria in all she had at stake on the S side of the Alps.

**ITALY**, a township of Yates co., in the state of New Hampshire, U.S., 15 m. W of Penn-Yan, bordered on the NW by Canandaigua lake, and drained by Flint creek. The surface is hilly, and the soil consists of clay-loam. Pop. in 1840, 1,634.

**ITAMARACA**, or **ITAMARICA**, an island of Brazil, in the Atlantic, in the prov. of Pernambuco, and comarca of Goganna, 20 m. N of Olinda or Recife, in N lat. 7° 45', and W long. 34° 50' 20". Pop. 8,000. It is 12 m. in length from N to S, and 6 m. across at its greatest breadth; and is separated from the continent by a deep channel named Santa Cruz, varying from  $\frac{1}{2}$  m. to 3 m. in breadth. The N extremity of the channel, which forms also the outlet of the Massarunduba, is named Catuama, and constitutes the harbour of that name. This port is well-protected from the S and SW winds, and was formerly defended by a fort. The southern extremity identifies with the embouchure of the Iguaçu, and is protected by a strong fort. This island contains no springs, but water is found abundantly at no great depth in the

mountains. The surface presents a gentle undulation of hill and dale; the soil is generally fertile, and produces mandioca, rice, sugar, and cotton, and cocoa and cashew nuts, in great abundance. These articles are chiefly exported to Recife. The distillation of brandy, and the working of the salines and fishing, form also branches of local industry; but the great majority of the pop. are employed more or less upon the fisheries. The total number of houses on the island is about 300, and the entire pop. about 2,000. The principal town, or village rather, Conceição-d'Itamaracá, is situated on rising ground on the SE coast. The relative advantages of the village of Pilar render it a place of rising importance, and likely to supersede Conceição. Several other villages, viz., Macaxeira, São-João-Baptista, Amparo, and Santa-Cruz, are scattered along the coast.—Also an ancient captaincy, now forming the prov. of Parahiba and a portion of the provs. of Pernambuco and Rio-Grande-do-Norte.

**ITAMARANDIBA**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, and comarca of Cerro-do-Frio. It has its source on the N side of the Serra-das-Esmaldas; runs N; and joins the Aracuaí on the r. bank, 18 m. NW of Bom-Sucesso, and after a total course of 60 m. Gold-dust, diamonds, and emeralds are found in considerable quantities in its channel.

**ITAMARATI**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, which has its source in the Serra Orgãos, and falls into the Piabanha.

**ITAMBE**, a parish of Brazil, in the prov. of Pernambuco and comarca of Goyanna, bordered on the N by the Capibaribe. It comprises 4 villages. Its inhabitants, 8,000 in number, find their chief employments in the rearing of cattle and agriculture.—Also a village in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, in a small valley at the base of a mountain, and on the banks of a stream of the same name.—Also a lofty mountain in the same prov., and district of Cerro, and a little to the N of Villa-do-Príncipe. It branches from the chain of the Cerro-do-Frio, near its junction with the Serra-do-Espinhaço, and is said to rise to the height of 5,590 ft. above sea-level. It derives its name from two Indian words denoting 'Sharp rock,' from its peaked summit. The river I. winds round the base of the mountain, in its course to the Santo-Antonio, an affluent of the Rio Doce, of which it forms one of the chief head-streams.

**ITAMBE-DA-SERRA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, 12 m. N of Serro, and in the Serra-de-Itambé.

**ITANCOURT**, a village of France, in the dep. of the Aisne, cant. of Moy, 4 m. SSE of St. Quentin. Pop. 815.

**ITANGUA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, and district of Minas-Novas, on a small river of the same name.

**ITANHAEN**, a district and town of Brazil, in the prov. and 45 m. SSW of São-Paulo, near the shore of a bay of the Atlantic, at the mouth of a small river of the same name. The town was formerly the capital of a capitania or province, and was named Conceição. It is now much reduced in importance, but still carries on some trade in flour, mandioc, and planks. The district is ill-cultivated, but produces vanilla and ipecacuanha in great abundance. Pop. 1,200. The river descends from the mountains, which run along the coast, and flows into the sea in S lat. 24° 11'. A bank which runs along its mouth prevents vessels from reaching the town.

**ITANHEN**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Bahia, which descends from the Cordilheira-dos-Aimorés, and flows into the ocean opposite the group of the Abrolhos, and 12 m. N of the embouchure of the Caravellas.

**ITANHENGA**, an island of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, off the district of Parati.

**ITAOCA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, on the E side of the bay of Nitherôhi.—Also an island in the same bay, to the N of the island of Paqueta.

**ITAPACOROYA**, a bay and headland of Brazil, in the prov. and 45 m. NNW of Santa Catharina. The point is in S lat. 26° 47' 18", and W long. 48° 44'. North of it are two small islands, in which there are springs of good water. The bay is well-sheltered on the S and SE.

**ITAPARICA**, an island of Brazil, in the prov. of Bahia, situated obliquely in the bay of Todos-os-Santos, and opposite the town of that name, in S lat. 13°. It is about 18 m. in length from NE to SW, and 6 m. in medium breadth. It is irregular in form and hilly, but very fertile, producing oranges and other fruits in great abundance. The E coast is adorned with numerous handsome houses, the opposite side is covered with marine plants. Cocoa palms are plentiful in the interior, and afford an important article of export. The island is divided into 2 parishes, and contains a large village in which are a college, an elementary school, and a Latin academy. It has also manufactories of cordage and of harpoons for whale-fisheries. The principal harbour in the island affords good shelter from the S and SW winds.

**ITAPAROA**, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Sergipe, to the NE of the serra of the same name, and S of the Rio Real. The mountains of I. form a group of medium height near the sea-shore, to the N of the Rio Itapicuru. Their highest summit is in S lat. 11° 34'.

**ITAPE-MIRIM**, a new comarca, district, town, and river of Brazil, in the prov. of Espírito-Santo. The comarca comprises 3 districts. The district is bounded on the N by the Rio Piúma; on the E by the ocean; on the S by the Rio Cabapúana; and on the W by the Cordilheira-dos-Aimorés. Pop. 2,000, chiefly Indians. The soil is fertile, but ill-cultivated. The town is 65 m. SSW of Nossa-Senhora-da-Victoria, on the r. bank of the river of the same name, and about half-a-league from the sea. It consists of about 80 houses, covered with straw, and surrounding a market-place. The river descends from the S side of the Serra-do-Pico, a ramification of the Cordilheira-dos-Aimorés, runs W, and, after a total course of about 50 m., flows into the ocean.

**ITAPE TENINGA**, a district and small town of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Paulo, and comarca of Itu, 80 m. W of Sorocaba, and 130 m. W of São Paulo, pleasantly situated in a plain, near the r. bank of a river of the same name. It has a parish church. The district is fertile, and contains some gold mines; but the cultivation of the vine and of the peach, and the rearing of cattle, form the chief sources of local gain. Pop. 6,000.—Also a river which has its source in the Serra-Guarapoyava; runs NW; and joins the Paranapanema, on the r. bank, about 42 m. W of Itapeva, and after a course of 120 m. Its principal affluents are the Capivari and Pescaria, which it receives on the l., and forms one of the chief head-streams of the Rio Paranapanema.

**ITAPEVA**, a district and small town of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Paulo, and comarca of Itu, 160 m. WSW of São-Paulo, near the Rio Verde. The district is large, but possesses little cultivation, and is but thinly populated, the number of the inhabitants not exceeding 2,200. Their chief employment consists in the rearing of mules and buffaloes.

**ITAPICU**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Santa Catharina, which has its source on the E side of the Serra-de-Santa-Catharina; runs E; and, after a course



of about 60 m., flows with great impetuosity into the sea, to the S of the island of San Francisco. It is to a great extent navigable for small vessels.

**ITAPICURU**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Bahia, formed by the junction of several streams, the principal of which are the Itapicuri-Guassu and Itapicuri-Mirim, in the comarca of Jacobina; runs E through the districts of Santo-Antonio-dos-Queimados and Itapicuri, and past Itapicuri-Grande; and after a course, chiefly through mountain pasture-land, of 840 m., falls into the Atlantic, in S lat.  $11^{\circ} 45'$ , and W long.  $37^{\circ} 28'$ . Its mouth is obstructed by a bar of sand, and its navigation is limited to vessels of small burthen.—A small town of the same name is situated in an infertile district, near the l. bank of the river, 120 m. NNE of San Salvador. The rearing of cattle forms the chief employment of the inhabitants.

**ITAPICURU-GRANDE**, a river and parish of Brazil, which has its source in the S part of the prov. of Maranhão; runs first NE parallel to the Parnahiba; receives the Alpercatas, passes the town of Caxias, bends NNW past Codó, Itapicuri-Mirim, and Rozario, and, after a tortuous and rapid course of about 300 m., flows into the bay of San Jose, to the SE of the island of Maranhão. It is navigable for large vessels to Caxias, but smaller craft can ascend to the junction of the Alpercatas. Its principal affluents, besides the one already named, are the Codo and Piratora on the l., and on the r. the Gamelaire and Pirapema. The banks are covered with forests, and are frequented by numerous tribes of Tapuyas and Timbiras.—Also a parish in the prov. of Bahia and district of Itapicuri, on the r. bank of the river of that name, and about 30 m. from the sea. It is well-cultivated, and produces cotton, grain, &c. Cattle are reared here in considerable numbers for the Bahia market.—See also ROZARIO.

**ITAPICURU-MIRIM**, a comarca and town of Brazil, in the prov. of Maranhão, on the r. bank of the river of the same name, about 66 m. from its mouth.

**ITAPIRANGUARA**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Ceara, and district of Januaria.

**ITAPIVA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, on the road from Rio-de-Janeiro to São-João-d'El-Rei, and on the banks of an affluent of the Rio Grande.

**ITAPOCA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Espírito-Santo, to the S of Vianna, and on the banks of the Itaquari. It has a small chapel.—Also a small river in the prov. of Santa Catharina, and district of São Francisco.

**ITAPUAN**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. and 9 m. E of Bahia, in a bay of the same name. It is a telegraph station, and has an elementary school.—Also a village of the prov. of São-Pedro-do-Rio-Grande, on the W bank of the lake Dos-Patos. It formerly contained a fort.

**ITAPUANZINHO**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. and ESE of Bahia, on a rocky bay of the Atlantic of the same name.

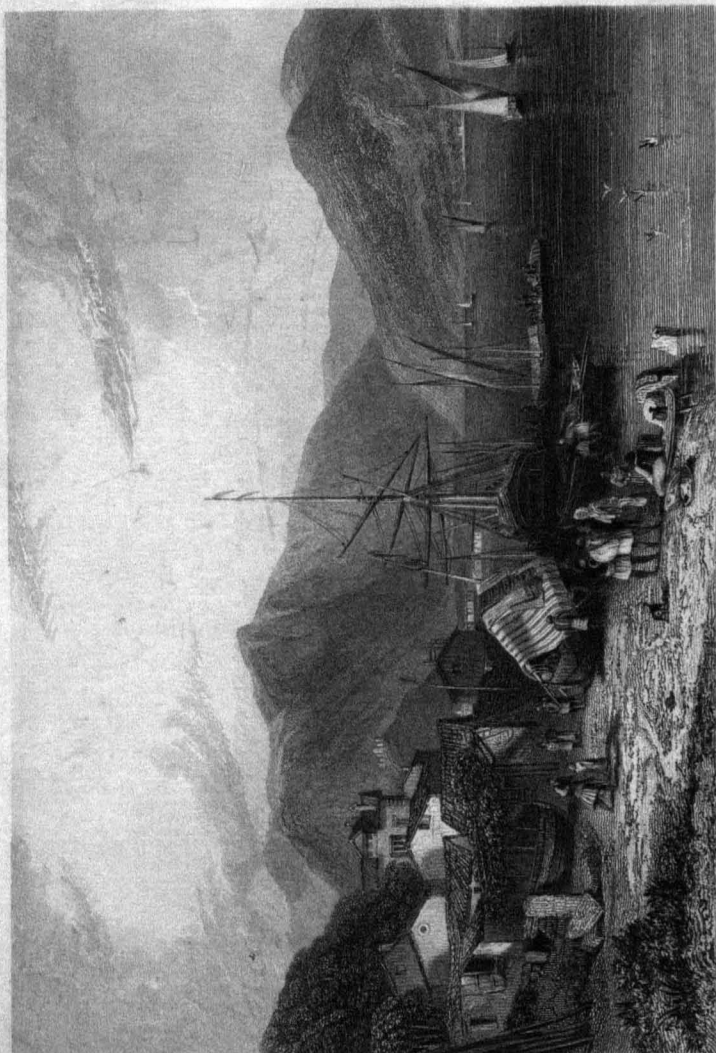
**ITAQUARI**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Espírito-Santo, which has its source in the Serra-dos-Aimorés, and unites with the Rio-Jecu.

**ITARACA**, a group of rocks in the Atlantic, near the shore of the Brazilian prov. of Bahia, to the S of São-Jorge-dos-Ilheos, and NE of the Serra Comandabua.

**ITARKHAN**, a salt lake in the Crimea, 3 versts from the Adaman lake, and to the N of the Kerleyt. It is about 20 versts in circumf.; and has deep inlets on its S side, next the Putrid sea; and it seems probable that a communication formerly existed between them.

**ITASCA (LAKE)**, the LAC-LA-BICHE of the French, a small sheet of water in the territory of Minisota, U. S., on the ridge of table-land between the waters of Hudson's bay and the gulf of Mexico, and to the W of Leech lake, in N lat.  $47^{\circ} 15'$ , W long.  $95^{\circ} 54'$ , at an alt. of 1,500 ft. above the level of the gulf of Mexico, and 3,160 m. from the gulf. The Mississippi has its source in this lake, from which it issues by an outlet only from 10 to 12 ft. broad, and 12 to 18 ft. deep, and first flowing N, NE, and E, 182 m. to Lake Cass. It is a beautiful sheet of water, of irregular form, 7 or 8 m. in extent from SE to NW, with a prolongation or bay stretching towards the S. Its waters are transparent and bright, and yield small species of the unio and helix shells. The forest trees growing around are elm, lynn, maple, cherry, betula, and spruce. The lake is fed by five creeks, "formed by innumerable streamlets oozing from the clay beds at the bases of the hills, that consist of an accumulation of sand, gravel, and clay, intermixed with erratic fragments, being a more prominent portion of the great erratic deposit known as the *hauteurs des terres*—"heights of land." These elevations are commonly flat at top, varying in height from 85 to 100 ft. above the level of the surrounding waters. They are covered with thick forests, in which the coniferous plants predominate. S of I. lake they form a semicircular region with a boggy bottom, extending to the SW a distance of several miles; thence these '*hauteurs des terres*' ascend to the NW and N, and then stretching to the NE and E, through the zone between  $47^{\circ}$  and  $48^{\circ}$  of lat., make the dividing ridge between the waters that empty into Hudson's bay and those which discharge themselves into the gulf of Mexico. The waters supplied by the N flank of these heights of land, still on the S side of Lake I., give origin to the five creeks which I consider to be the utmost sources of the Mississippi. Those that flow from the S side of the same heights, and empty themselves into Elbow lake, are the utmost sources of the Red river of the North: so that the most remote feeders of Hudson's bay and the gulf of Mexico are closely approximated to each other." [*Nicollet's Report*.] The principal creek of the five above-mentioned feeders of Lake I. comes into the E bay of the lake, and is from 15 to 20 ft. wide, and at the time of Nicollet's visit, was from 2 to 3 ft. deep. This he considers the infant Mississippi. M. Nicollet went up this stream 3 or 4 m., and thus describes the result of his explorations of the feeders of Lake I.: "As a further description of these head-waters, I may add that they unite at a small distance from the hills whence they originate, and form a small lake, from which the Mississippi flows with a breadth of a foot and a half, and a depth of one foot. At no great distance, however, this rivulet, uniting itself with other streamlets coming from other directions, supplies a second minor lake, the waters of which have already acquired a temperature of  $48^{\circ}$ . From this lake issues a rivulet, necessarily of increased importance—a cradled Hercules, giving promise of the strength of his maturity; for its velocity has increased; it transports the smaller branches of trees; it begins to form sand-bars; its bends are more decided, until it subsides again into the basin of a third lake, somewhat larger than the two preceding. Having thus acquired renewed vigour, and tried its consequence upon an additional length of two or three miles, it finally empties into I. lake, which is the principal reservoir of all the sources to which it owes all its subsequent majesty." See MISSISSIPPI.

**ITATA**, a district of Chili, in the dep. of Concepcion, extending between the districts of Canquenes on the N, and Pughacay on the S, and bordered on the W by the Pacific. It is 75 m. in length from F



Engr. by C. Knapp, from a sketch by W. Page.

## ITHACA.

Engraved by E. P. Smith.

to W, and about 30 m. in breadth; and is watered chiefly by the river from which it takes its name. It is very fertile, and produces the best wine in Chili. In the mountains are mines of gold, and small quantities of that metal are also found in the rivers. Its chief town is Jesus-de-Coulemu. The river I. has its source in the Andes; runs WNW; is joined by the Chillan; and flows into the Pacific in S lat. 35° 56'.

ITATI, or YTATI, a small town of La Plata, in the prov. and 35 m. ENE of Corrientes, on the S bank of the Parana. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians. Cotton, oranges, melons, &c., are cultivated in the environs.

ITATIAIA, or ITTIAIA, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, and parish of Ouro-Branco, 9 m. SW of Ouro-Preto. It has a church, and formerly constituted a parish. Its inhabitants are chiefly miners.

ITATINDIBA, a mountain-range of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, and district of Marica. It forms a ramification of the Cordilheira-dos-Aimorés.

ITAUNAS, a mountain-range of Brazil, in the prov. of Espirito-Santo, between the districts of Barra-Secca, and São-Matheos.

ITAYABANA, a large and flourishing parish of Brazil, in the prov. of Parahiba, on the l. bank of a river of the same name, and 6 m. above Pilar, on the road from the prov. of Pernambuco to the N. Its inhabitants are chiefly cultivators.

ITAWAMBA, a county in the state of Mississippi, U. S., comprising an area of 900 sq. m., drained by the head-branches of Tombigbee river. It has an undulating surface, and a fertile soil. Pop. in 1840, 5,375, of whom 720 were slaves; in 1850, 13,311.

ITCHA, a river of Kamtschatka, which runs W, and throws itself into the sea of Okhotsk, a little above the v. of Itchinskoi, after a course of 75 m. —Also a river in the gov. of Tobolsk, and district of Kanisk, which runs SW, and joins the Om, on the r. bank, after a course of 105 m.

ITCHAPUR, a town of Hindostan, in the presidency of Madras, and prov. of the Northern Circars, district and 30 m. SW of Janjam, 6 m. from the shore of the gulf of Bengal, and near the l. bank of the N branch of the Sonapur. It is of considerable extent, but is straggling and ill-built.

ITCHEN, or AIRE, a river in Hants, which has its source near Alresford, and, after a WSW course of 25 m., unites with the Test or Anton to form Southampton water, 1 m. E of Southampton.

ITCHENOR (WEST), a parish in Sussex, 4 m. SW of Chichester. Area 782 acres. Pop. 254.

ITCHIN-ABBOTS, a parish in the co. of Southampton, 3½ m. WNW of New Alresford. Area 2,100 acres. Pop. in 1831, 243; in 1851, 256.

ITCHIN-STOKE-WITH-ABBOTSTON, a parish in the co. of Southampton, 2½ m. NW of Alresford. Area 2,921 acres. Pop. in 1851, 348.

ITCHINGFIELD, a parish in Sussex, ¾ m. WSW of Horsham. Area 2,470 acres. Pop. in 1851, 371.

ITCHINGTON (BISHOP'S), a parish in Warwickshire, ¾ m. SW of Southam. Area, including Chapel-Ascote, 2,470 acres. Pop. in 1851, 371.

ITCHINGTON (LONG), a parish in Warwickshire, 2½ m. NW of Southam, on the Watergate. Area 4,510 acres. Pop. in 1831, 911; in 1851, 1,216.

ITCHKINSKAIA, a town of Russia in Asia, in the gov. and 333 m. ESE of Perm, district and 14 m. E of Chadrinsk, on the r. bank of the Ikin.

ITCHLIMAN. See IELIMAN.

ITCHMIATZIN. See ECHMIADZIN.

ITCHNIA, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 144 m. NW of Poltova, district and 20 m. N of Prilouki.

ITENEZ. See GUAPORE.

ITERERE, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São Paulo, which has its source in the Serra-do-Mar or Gubetam; runs first W; then bends WNW between the districts of Itapeva and Castro, crosses the Estrada Real, and joins the Itapetininge.

ITEUIL, a village of France, in the dep. of the Vienne, cant. and 5 m. NNE of Vivonne, on the l. bank of the Clain. Pop. 680. Cattle fairs are held here 3 times a-year.

ITHACA, now called also ITACHE, THEAKI, or LITTLE CEPHALONIA, and by the Venetians ISOLA DI COMPARI and VAL DI COMPARI, one of the Ionian islands, lying between Cephalonia and the mainland, 3 m. E of Cephalonia, and 17 m. W of the Acarnanian coast. Its N end is in N lat. 38° 30', E long. 20° 39'. It is 15 m. long, but nowhere above 4 m. broad; and is nearly divided into two by Porto Molo, a deep harbour opening from the W. At the head of this inlet is Mount Ceto; on the N side rises Mount Neriton; and on the S, Mount Stephanos. Thus these mountains compose the body of the island. The pop. in 1836 was 9,644; in 1844, 10,821, of whom about one-third are seamen. Nearly one-third of the surface is cultivated, and is chiefly laid out in vineyards. Its cap. and chief port is Vathy, which is built round a recess in the larger gulf of Molo. Its general and characteristic appearance agrees with the language of the Odyssey respecting the birth-place and kingdom of the famous Ulysses. It is rocky, barren, and mountainous,—abounding in trees and shrubs,—and certainly unfavourable to the rearing and use of horses. But this coincidence alone will not prove Theaki to be the ancient *Ithaca*; the smaller island of Aotaco, in its neighbourhood, presents an aspect precisely similar; and Sir George Wheeler contends that it is the island of the poet. Gell—who felt a strong disposition to believe that Homer's topographical descriptions were not the inspired offspring of a creative muse, but accurate and sober imitations of their specific archetypes in nature—undertook, for the express purpose of verifying the geography of the poet, a voyage to the Troad, and produced *The Topography of Troy*. He afterwards minutely surveyed the whole island, endeavouring to recognise by present appearances, as well as by the relative situation of Theaki, the ancient *Ithaca*—the small island of *Asteris* with its port, where the suitors lay in ambush for young Telemachus—the port of *Phorcys*, where Ulysses landed on his return—the rock of *Korax*—the fount of *Arethusa*, where the honest and faithful Eumæus fed his master's swine—the garden of the aged Laertes—and the palace of Ulysses; but the result of this examination was that Sir William ascertained that there is no spot in the modern Theaki exactly answering to the description of the poet; and that while Homer's text declares it to be the most western of the Ionian isles, and that the small island of *Asteris*, with its commodious harbour, lies between it and Samé or Cephalonia, the very reverse is the case. Under these circumstances, Gell maintains that the text is corrupted. The evidences that are of weight to prove that Theaki is the ancient *Ithaca* are—the constant and unbroken tradition among the natives—the name which the island seems to have always borne among the inhabitants—the medals which have been found there—and the impressions which a personal visit can hardly fail to leave on the mind of the impartial student of Homer, that, to use the language of Colonel Mure—who has gone deeply into this investigation—"so great is the general resemblance between its natural features and those of the island described in the Odyssey, the difficulty is, not so much to discover in each case a bay, rock, cavern, or mountain answering to his description, as to decide among the many



that present themselves, on the precise one which he may happen to have had in view."

**ITHACA**, a township of Tompkins co., in the state of New York, U. S., 162 m. SW of Albany, partly on a hill and partly in a plain,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. S of the head of Cayuga lake, and intersected by Cayuga inlet. It contains about 700 houses, is regularly laid out, and possesses very great local advantages; the surrounding hills affording excellent mill-streams, and the adjacent lake, and the Ithaca and Oswego railroad forming easy communication with the most distant parts of the country. Pop. in 1840, 5,650.

**ITHALEH**, or **ITALAH**, a village of Turkey in Asia, in Anatolia, in the sanj. of Sarukhan, on the l. bank of the Sarabat, 21 m. NNE of Allah-Shehr, and 96 m. ENE of Smyrna. It is the ancient *Atalea*.

**ITHON**, a river of Radnorshire, which runs S, and joins the Wye 2 m. NNW of Builth.

**ITIBIRI**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Maranhão and comarca of Itapicuru, on a small river of the same name.

**ITINGUÇU**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, which forms the line of separation between the districts of Mangaratiba and Itaguahi, and flows into the bay of Angra-dos-Reis.

**ITIQUÉIA**, a mountain range of Brazil, in the prov. of Mato-Grosso, in the territory of the Bororos. It gives rise to a river of the same name, which runs WNW, and joins the Pequiri, on the l. bank, after a course of about 90 m.—Also a mountain range in the prov. of Goyaz, in the Cordilheira which separates that prov. from Minas-Geraes. It gives rise to many small streams, affluents of the Tocantins.

**ITIRI**, or **ITTERI-CANNEDDEE**, a town of Sardinia, in the div. of Capo Sassari, prov. and 11 m. S of Sassari. Pop. 4,000.

**ITIUBA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. of Bahia, comarca of Rio-de-Contas, on a mountain of the same name.

**ITLINGEN**, a town of Baden, in the circle of the Middle Rhine, bail. of Eppingen, 4 m. S of Carlsruhe. Pop. 2,000.

**ITOMA**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Para, which runs NNW, and joins the Xingu, on the r. bank, a little above the confluence of the Itabagua, and after a course of about 120 m.

**ITON**, or **Yron**, a river of France, which has its source in the dep. of the Orne, 6 m. N of Mortagne; enters the dep. of the Eure; divides a little above Francheville into several branches, one of which flows into the Aure at Verneuil; the others reuniting run NE, lose their waters in a chasm at Villalet, and after a subterranean course of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  m., reappear in a single stream near the village of Gaudreville, which passes Evreux, and throws itself into the Eure, on the l. bank, near Planches, after a total course of 75 m.

**ITONFIELD**, a township in Cumberland, 8 m. SW by S of Carlisle. Pop. in 1851, 236.

**ITRES**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Somme and cant. of Combles. Pop. 1,175.

**ITRI**, a town of Naples, in the prov. of the Terradi-Lavoro, district and 7 m. N of Gaeta, cant. and 8 m. SE of Fondi, in a hilly district. Pop. 4,100. It is intersected by the Appian way, and contains 2 parish churches and 3 convents.

**ITSATSOU**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Basses-Pyrénées, cant. of Espelette, 14 m. S of Bayonne, near the Nive. Pop. 1,513.

**ITSHIL**, or **ICHIL**, a pashalic and sanjak of Turkey in Asia, in the S part of Asia Minor. The sanj. comprises the E part of the ancient *Pamphylia*, and nearly the whole of *Cilicia*, and extends between  $36^{\circ}$  and  $37^{\circ} 40'$  N lat., and between  $32^{\circ} 10'$  and  $36^{\circ} 30'$  E

long. It is bounded on the N by Caramania, from which it is separated by the Taurus chain; on the NE by the pash. of Marash; on the E by the Almadagh, by which it is separated from the pash. of Aleppo; on the S by the Mediterranean; and on the W by Anatolia. Its length from E to W is 375 m., and its breadth about 60 m. It is divided into 5 sanjaks. The coast extends from the gulf of Satalia, on the W, to that of Alexandretta or Scanderun on the E; and presents numerous indentations, forming good ports and lofty headlands. Of the latter, one of the most remarkable is Capé Anamur, which forms the most southerly point of Asia Minor. The shore is in some parts sandy and sterile, in others it consists of masses of petrifications, intermingled with huge blocks of stone disengaged from the adjacent mountains. The ruins also of ancient towns are thickly scattered along the coast. Towards the interior, steep mountains, deep gorges, and narrow valleys form the general characteristic features of the country. In the N rise the snow-clad mountains of the Taurus. The principal passes on these mountains are those of the Ramazanogli, leading from Ereklî to Adana; of the Ketchhissar, further to the E; and the Col, or defile through which the road runs from Caramania to Selefkeh. The only passes of the Almadagh are those of Beilan and Sakattutan. The chief rivers are the Jihun, Sihun, Tersus, Ghiuk, Direkondessy, Selinty, Alara, and Manavghat. They all flow into the Mediterranean, and are generally very small. Near the coast and generally throughout the E part of the pash., water is extremely scarce. The temperature corresponds with the diversified character of the country, and the same diversity is exhibited in the productions of the soil. Wheat, maize, cotton, and sesame are successfully cultivated in the plains of Adana, Tarsus, and Sis; whilst barley forms the chief produce of the western and central parts of the prov. Wine and fruit are produced in great abundance in the eastern sanjaks. The mountains are extensively covered with forests, affording excellent timber, and large quantities of gall-nuts. Large numbers of cattle, sheep, goats, camels, horses, asses, and mules, are maintained by the nomadic inhabitants of the pash., and pigeons and poultry are reared in great numbers in many places near the coast. Wild beasts and game are common in the woods, and the shores abound with fish. The principal articles of export are corn, sesame, gall-nuts, wool, cattle, and timber. The pop. of the pash. is scanty, and chiefly nomadic. Its chief towns are Adana and Tarsus.—The sanj. of I. lies near the centre of the pash., and comprises an area 150 m. in length, and 60 m. at its greatest breadth; bounded on the N by the Taurus; on the E by the sanj. of Tarsus; on the S by the Mediterranean; and on the W by the sanj. of Adana. It is extremely mountainous, and is covered with forests of oak, beech, and fir. The coast is lofty, steep, and rocky; the finest part is the valley of Ermenak. It is watered in the E by the Ghiuk, and in the W by the Selinty. The inhabitants, who are chiefly Turcomans, employ themselves in the rearing of cattle.—The principal towns are Selefkeh and Ermenak.

**ITTER**, a river of the grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, an affluent of the Eder.

**ITTERBEEK**, a department and commune of Belgium, in the prov. of Brabant, and arrond. of Brussels. Pop. of dep. 727; of com. 255.—Also a commune in the prov. of Antwerp, dep. of Duffel. Pop. 706.

**ITTERINGHAM**, a parish in Norfolk, 4 m. NW of Aylesham, on the Bure. Area 1,443 acres. Pop. in 1831, 343; in 1851, 329.

**ITTON**, a parish in Monmouthshire, 3 m. W by N of Chepstow. Area, including Howick, 1,103

acres. Pop. in 1831, 141; in 1851, 151. It has several breweries, and distilleries of gin.

ITTRE, a department and commune of Belgium, in the prov. of Brabant, arrond. and 5 m. NW of Nivelles. Pop. of dep. 2,089; of v. 457.

ITU', a comarca, district, and town of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Paulo. The comarca comprises 8 districts, and is one of the most fertile and populous in the prov. The town is 60 m. W of São-Paulo, 21 m. NNE of Sorocaba, and about 3 m. S of the Rio Tiete, from a fall of which it derives its name. Pop. 10,000. It is surrounded by lofty mountains, which render the extremes of heat and cold excessive. The principal streets are paved; the houses generally are built of mud or earth, and each has a garden attached to it. The buildings most worthy of note are the churches, 4 in number, the convents, and the senate-house. There are also a Latin and several elementary schools, and a lazaret-house. A considerable trade is carried on in horses, mules, and cattle, large numbers of which are reared in the surrounding district. Sugar forms an important article of local culture.

ITUCAMBIRA, a parish and town of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes. The p. comprises an area 120 m. in length, and about equal in breadth, and contains 8,000 inhabitants, employed chiefly in mining and agriculture. The town is 270 m. NNW of Ouro-Preto.—Also a wide-spreading mountain-range in the same prov., in the S part of the comarca of Cerro-do-Frio. It runs WNW from the Serra-do-Espinhaco, between the Parana and Sipo, and terminates near the r. bank of the Rio-das-Velhas, a distance of about 45 m. Several auriferous streams have their source in this range.

ITUCAMBIRA, or ITUCAMBIRA-AÇU', a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, formed by the junction of two streams which descend from the SW side of the Serra-do-Santo-Antonio. Running E, it is joined by the Pedra, Estrema, and Santo-Antonio; and, after a total course of 90 m., joins the Jequitinhonha.

ITUNAMA, or TUNA'MA, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Mato-Grosso, which has its rise about 15 m. W of Conceição; runs NNW between the Ubahy and Baures rivers; receives the Machupo and several minor streams; and, after a course of 90 m., joins the Guapore, 12 m. W of the confluence of the Baures.

ITURUP, GORTPU, or STAATEN ISLAND, an island of Japan, in the Kurile archipelago, between the sea of Okhotsk and the Frozen ocean, in N lat. 44° 50', E long. 148° 20'. It is the largest in the group, being 140 m. in length, and 15 m. in average breadth; and is separated by the strait of Vries on the NE from the island of Urup, and on the SW from the island of Kunachir by the strait of Anthony's peak. The rapidity of the currents in these channels, and the rocky character of its shores, render access to the island at most points very dangerous. At the NE extremity of the island, on the strait of Vries, is a headland of that name; and in the SW are several lofty summits, one of which is an active volcano. The climate is cold and misty. The island affords varieties of excellent timber, but little is known of the minor productions of its soil. Foxes, beavers, and sables, are found here in great numbers; and amongst its birds, one of the most useful is the *mauridar*, a species of pigeon, which, besides affording excellent aliment, supplies good lamp-oil. The dog is the only domestic animal. Fish of all kinds abound on the coasts. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, bear a close resemblance to those of Yesso. They differ, however, in dress, their garb in summer consisting of feathers, and in winter of seal-skin. The principal establishment in the island is in its

SW extremity, near a volcano. It has a port, defended by a fort.

ITUREN, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Navarra, 21 m. NNW of Pamplona, at the foot of the lofty mountain of Mendaur. Pop. 719. It has a fortress, and possesses 3 manufactories of cattle-bells, and several spinning-mills.

ITWA, a town of Bohemia, in the circle and 32 m. NW of Pilsen. Pop. 510.

ITZ, or Irsch, a river which has its source in the duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, on the S side of the Thuringer-wald; passes Schalkau; enters the duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, passes in its course through the principality of Coburg, the town of that name, and Rossach; flows thence into Bavaria; runs along the confines of the circles of Upper and Lower Franconia; and joins the Main, on the r. bank, a little above the confluence of the Bannach, and 9 m. NNW of Bamberg. It has a total course, in a generally S direction, of about 45 m. Its principal affluents are the Lauter and Rodach, both of which join it on the r.

ITZA (LAKE), an extensive fresh water lake of Honduras, in N lat. 16°, W long. 91° 16'. It is 26 leagues in circumf., and its pure waters produce excellent fish. Several inhabited islands are scattered over its surface.

ITZASSOU, or ITSATSOU, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Basses-Pyrénées, cant. and 3 m. ESE of Espelette, near the Nive. Pop. 1,660.

ITZEHOE, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Holstein, 30 m. SSW of Rendsborg, and 39 m. NW of Altona, on the r. bank of the Stör, which is here crossed by a bridge. Pop. 6,000. It consists of an old and new town, and contains a church, a town-house, a convent, and an hospital. It possesses manufactories of tobacco, chicory, and playing-cards, and several sugar-refineries, has an active trade in cattle and horses, and extensive fisheries.—The Itzehoe district has a pop. of 32,200.

ITZELBERG, a village of Württemberg, in the circle of the Jaxt, 18 m. S of Ellwangen. Pop. 260.

ITZHOFEN, a village of Württemberg, in the circle of the Jaxt, S of Rupertshofen.

IUN-DAGH, a mountain of Turkey in Asia, in Anatolia, on the confines of the sanjaks of Karasi and Sarokhan. It branches from the SW part of the Iunus-Dagh, and extends between the Bergamo-chai and Chanderli-chai. It is the ancient *Pindusus*.

IUNUS-DAGH, a mountain-chain of Turkey in Asia, in Anatolia, extending SE from the chain of Ida, along the confines of the sanjaks of Karasi, Khodavendikar, and Sarokhan, to the Kodja-Dagh, a total distance of about 24 m. It gives rise on the E to the Bali-kesri-chai, and several affluents of the Sou-segher-leu, belonging to the basin of the sea of Marmara; and on the W to the Zeiliti-chai and Chanderli-chai, both of which flow into the Archipelago. This river is the ancient *Pedusus*.

IVAFUME, a town of Japan, in the island of Nifon, and prov. of Yetsingo, 144 m. NNW of Yedo.

IVAHU, or UBAHI, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São-Paulo, which has its source in the W part of the comarca of Curitiba; traverses, in a NW direction, the vast plains of Garapuava; and, after a total course of about 300 m., joins the Parana, on the l. bank, a little to the N of the Ilha-Grande-do-Salto, and by an embouchure 60 fath. in width. It has several rapids, but is notwithstanding navigable for small vessels to within a short distance of its source. Its principal affluents are, the Tiuto, Bom, Soberbo, Capibari, and Thua. Its waters abound with fish, whence the name Peixe, by which it is also commonly known.

IVAKI-SIMA, an island of Japan, 10 m. W of

Cape Itsumo, on the W coast of the island of Nifon, 15 m. in length, and about 6 m. in breadth.

**IVAMI**, **YWAMI**, or **CHI-KIAN**, a province of Japan, in the SW part of the island of Nifon, to the SW of the prov. of Itsumo, and bathed on the W by the strait of Corea. It is generally mountainous but fertile, and on its coast are extensive salines. It is divided into 6 districts.

**IVAN**, a lake of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Toula, on the confines of the districts of Venev and Lépfan, 21 m. SSE of the town of the former name, and about equal distance NW of that of the latter. It is 1 m. in length, and a little more than a quarter of a mile in breadth. It gives rise to the Don, and is connected with the Chat by a canal which forms a portion of the undertaking commenced in 1697 by Peter the Great, with the view of effecting a communication by means of the above-named rivers between the Caspian and Baltic.

**IVAN-GOROD**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 90 m. SW of St. Petersburg, district and 17 m. W of Jamburg, on the r. bank of the Narova, opposite Narva, with which it is connected by a bridge. Pop. 1,000. It has a church and barracks.—Also a town in the gov. and 69 m. SE of Tchernigov, district and 19 m. S of Borzna, on the r. bank of the Oster. Pop. 1,200. It carries on a considerable trade in hemp and buck-wheat flour, and has several annual cattle-markets.

**IVANICH** (**FESTUNG**), a town or free military commune of Hungarian Croatia, généralat of Warasdin, and subdivision of Kreutz, on an island formed by the Lonya, 24 m. ESE of Agram, and 26 m. SW of Belovar. Pop. 780. It has several manufactories of pottery, and carries on a flourishing trade. Three m. NE of this town is the village of Kloster-Ivanich, containing 750 inhabitants and a Franciscan monastery.

**IVANITSA**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 132 m. NW of Poltova, district and 19 m. NE of Prilouki, on the l. bank of a river of the same name.

**IVANKOV**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 46 m. NNW of Kiev, district and 45 m. NE of Radomisl, on the l. bank of the Tétérev.

**IVANOSKOL**, a canal of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and ESE of Toule, formed in, and connecting, the beds of the Don and Chat.

**IVANOVO**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 82 m. NNE of Vladimir, district and 18 m. NW of Chonia, near the r. bank of the Ouvot. Pop. 5,000. It is well laid out, has 4 churches, and possesses several manufactories of plain and printed calicoes.

**IVANSKOE**, a village of Russia in Europe, in the gov. and 30 m. NW of Orel, district and 15 m. SW of Bolkhov, on the l. bank of the Noug. It has manufactories of iron-ware, and possesses several annual fairs.

**IVANTSEVITCHI**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Grodno, district and 27 m. S of Slonim.

**IVANY**, a town of Hungary, in the comitat and 24 m. SE of Oedenburg, and 15 m. ENE of Güns. Pop. 1,812.

**IVARSTOWN**, a village in the p. of Kilfinaghta, co. Clare. Pop. 63.

**IVASHKA**, or **IOANKO**, a lake of Russia in Asia, in the territory of the Tchuktchi, in N lat. 66° 15', and E long. 172° 20'. It is 24 m. in length, and 12 m. in breadth. The Anadir, a tributary of Behring's sea, issues from its W extremity.

**IVASHKEVITCHI**, a town of Russia in Europe, in the gov. of Grodno, district and 17 m. ESE of Volkovisk, on the l. bank of the Zelva.

**IVAT**, an island in a bay of the sea of Bab-el-Mandeb, 10 m. N of Zeyla, in N lat. 11° 24', and E long. 42° 56'.

**IVATSOUKI**, a town of Japan, in the island of Nifon, and prov. of Mousasi.

**IVE** (Str.), a parish in Cornwall, 4½ m. SSW of Callington. Area 7,880 acres. Pop. in 1851, 1,013.

**IVEGILL**, a township in Dalston p., Cumberland, 5½ m. SW of Carlisle, and intersected by the Maryport and Carlisle railway. Pop. in 1841, 124.

**IVEL**, two rivers of England. See **BEDFORDSHIRE** and **SOMERSETSHIRE**.

**IVELUK**, or **IFELUK**, an island of the Caroline archipelago, in the N. Pacific, W of Hawaii.

**IVENACH**, a town of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, 2 m. ENE of Stavenhagen, on a small lake of the same name. Pop. 800.

**IVER**, a parish in Buckinghamshire, 2½ m. NNE of Colnebrook, on the banks of the Colne, and in the line of the Great Western railway, which here passes through a cutting 1 m. in length, and averaging 10 ft. in depth. Area 6,149 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,870; in 1851, 1,985.

**IVERUS**, a parish in co. Limerick, in the NW corner of the barony of Kenry. Area 2,765 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,884; in 1851, 1,151.

**IVES** (Sr.), a parliamentary borough, sea-port, and parish, in Penwith hund., co. of Cornwall, 69 m. WSW of Launceston, and 27½ m. W by S of London, on the W side of the bay of St. Ives, in the Bristol channel. Area of the p. 1,876 acres. Pop. in 1801, 2,714; in 1841, 5,666; in 1851, 6,525.—The bay of St. Ives, at the NE extremity of which the town is situated, is a deep and capacious basin formed by Godrevy head and island on the E, and the bold peninsular promontory which rises over the town to the W. The river Heyl flows through a broad estuary into the middle of the bay. The promontory which runs out to the NE of the town, and is divided from it by a sandy isthmus, is a fine abrupt steep, ribbed with romantic rocks of black killas, against which the waves dash with prodigious fury when the wind is N. A new pier was constructed under the direction of Smeaton, the engineer, between 1766 and 1770; and in 1816, the pier was extended, and a breakwater constructed for its protection, so that at spring-tides the harbour could accommodate 200 large vessels. The principal street of the town is a long one, branching out on the S into two shorter ones, and uniting again in others still further S. Continuous with these, and along the Penzance road, the town is extending, and there are various scattered buildings beyond its precincts. The income of the borough for 1839 was £155, arising from tolls and dues; for 1847, £192. Before the passing of the Reform act, the borough and parish were co-extensive, and the inhabitants returned 2 members to parliament; by the Reform act, the ps. of Lelant and Towednack were added to the old borough, and the number of members reduced to 1. The number of electors registered in 1837 was 566; in 1848, 587. The principal employment of the inhabitants is in the pilchard fishery. Other articles of export are slates and copper-ore. In the vicinity are copper and tin mines, among which are Wheal Providence, and St. Ives' Consols mines.—Also a parish and market-town in Huntingdonshire, 5 m. E of Huntingdon, on the river Ouse, over which there is here a handsome bridge of 6 arches. Area 2,330 acres. Pop. in 1831, 3,314; in 1851, 3,572. The town, most of the buildings of which are of modern erection, suffered severely from fire in 1689. It contains several ale-breweries and malt-kilns, and the markets and fairs are well attended. Oliver



Cromwell rented a farm here, prior to his being chosen Burgess for Cambridge.

**IVESTONE**, a township in Lanchester p., Durham, 9 m. NW of Durham. Area 1,925 acres. Pop. in 1831, 212; in 1851, 2,500.

**IVICA**, or **IBIZA**, an island of the Mediterranean, one of the Balearic group, under the dominion of Spain, the largest of those denominated the *Pityusae*, a name of doubtful etymology, derived by some of the ancients from their abounding in pines, and by others from certain earthen vessels fabricated by the inhabitants. I. lies 61 m. E from the promontory of San-Anton, near Denia, the nearest part of the Spanish coast, and 42 m. SW of Majorca; and is separated by a channel 3 m. wide from the island of Formentera. It extends from NE to SW 27 m. in length; and has an average breadth of 12 m. Its area is 190 sq. m. It is in general high and mountainous, and bordered almost around its whole extent by precipitous rocks. The coast sinks so rapidly that within a mile of the shore the depth of water is 20 or 30 fath. On the SW it declines more gradually, but on the N the sea is very deep. Fertile valleys of agreeable appearance are interspersed among the hills, and the soil requires nothing but the industry of man to render it productive. Grain of different kinds is easily reared; olives, grapes, almonds, and water-melons of superior quality grow almost without cultivation; and the excellence of the figs of I. was celebrated so long ago as the time of Pliny. But agriculture is here far behind: and oil and wine are but negligently made. Game is plentiful, and the ordinary domesticated animals are common.—The inhabitants, about 11,000 in number, are for the most part of middle size, of a tawny complexion, and endowed with much personal activity; but they are indolent, and testify an extraordinary aversion to labour. They speak a jargon of the Spanish language with a guttural accent, said to be a dialect of the Limosin. Large flocks of sheep are reared; and though little attention is paid to agriculture, the industry of the Ivicans is somewhat excited by the fisheries and the collection of salt. They are expert seamen; and about 60 vessels of different sizes are to be seen in their principal port. The *Sparus smaragdus* of ichthyologists is taken in such quantities as to employ one-half of the fishermen of I. The deep-sea fishery is conducted at a depth of about 100 fath., and obtains a great variety of fish. In summer, nets are stretched to the island of Formentera, for the capture of one species, and in autumn for that of another called *Lampuga*, which is taken in vast abundance. Part of the fish is salted and exported. Many hundreds of the islanders are occupied during August in collecting the salt produced by evaporation from ponds or marshes, which, together with a little wool, forms the chief export of the island; for the exportation of grain, fruit, and oil, though the principal natural products of the island, is prohibited by government. Except in the immediate neighbourhood of the villages, or leading to different ports where the salt is embarked, the roads are scarcely passable.—The island is partitioned into 5 *cuartones* or districts: viz., 1. the Llano-de-Villa, or Plain of the city; 2. Santa-Eulalia; 3. Balanzat; 4. Pormany; and 5. the Salines. The first is the most important, and contains the town of I., in N lat. 38° 53' 16", E long. 1° 26' 32", which consists of about 200 houses, together with a cathedral, 6 churches, a convent, and barracks. It is commanded by a small fortress occupying an eminence on the coast, to the E of which are the suburbs, consisting of 420 houses. The total pop. of the place amounts to about 5,800. This town is the seat of a governor, and was formerly a bishop's see. Its port is spacious and convenient,

and sheltered on all sides; but is gradually choking up with the ballast discharged by the vessels coming hither to load with salt. Historians ascribe the foundation of the town to the Phœnicians, between six and seven centuries before Christ, and it is supposed to have been formerly considerably more extensive. The fortress was erected by Charles V. of Spain.—The history of I. does not afford matter of peculiar interest. It was anciently called *Ebusus*, or *Ebosus Phœnissa*; and from it the Carthaginians, long before the Christian era, attempted the conquest of other islands in the Mediterranean. It was reduced by the Spaniards in 1294; and in 1706 surrendered to a British fleet commanded by Sir John Leake. It has generally followed the fortunes of Majorca and Minorca.

**IVIE**, a town of Russia, in the gov. and 59 m. SSE of Wilna.

**IVIERNAS (LAS)**, a village of Spain, in the prov. and 36 m. ENE of Guadaluara. Pop. 400.

**IVIERS**, a commune and village of France, in the dep. of Aisne, cant. of Aubenton. Pop. 1,062.

**IVINA**, a river of Russia, in the gov. of Olonetz, rising 25 m. SSW of Petrozavodsk, and flowing into the Svir, on the l. bank, after a course of 60 m.

**IVINEIMA**, or **IVINHEIMA**, a river of S. America, which rises on the E flank of the Serra-de-San-Jose; runs SE, forming in part the boundary between Paraguay and the Brazilian prov. of Mato-Grosso; and flows into the Parana, on the r. bank, after a course of about 150 m.

**IVINGHOE**, a parish and market-town in Buckinghamshire, 22 m. SE by E of Buckingham, and 3 m. NNW of the Tring station of the Great North-western railway. Area 5,260 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,648; in 1851, 2,024. The p. comprises the hamlets of Aston, Horton and Seabrook, and Margaret-street. The town, which is situated on the declivity of three peculiarly shaped chalk hills, commands extensive prospects of the adjacent country. The manufacture of straw-plait is carried on here.

**IVINGTON**, a township in Leominster p., Herefordshire, 2½ m. SW of Leominster.

**IVORY COAST**, a name sometimes given to that portion of the Guinea coast extending about 110 leagues, between Cape Palmas and Cape Apollonia, in a low straight line with few bays or islands. Lahon, on this coast, is a populous town frequented by Europeans. From this place E to Apollonia the coast is commonly called 'the country of the Quaquas.' The inhabitants of the Ivory coast are described as being, with a few exceptions, the most savage and intractable of any upon the African coast. Their teeth, which are crooked and irregularly placed, are carefully filed to a point as sharp as needles; they allow their nails to grow to a great length; and wear their hair long and besmeared with palm-oil and red earth. Their language is harsh, and scarcely intelligible, resembling rather the cry of wild beasts than the sound of the human voice; and their general character is said to be thievish, violent, and revengeful. See articles **GOLD COAST** and **GUINEA**.

**IVOY**, a commune of Belgium, in the prov. of Namur, dep. of Maillen. Pop. 189.

**IVOY-LE-PRE**, or **YVOY-LE-PRE**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Cher, and cant. of La Chapelle-d'Angillon. Pop. 2,666.

**IVOZ**, a commune of Belgium, in the prov. of Liege, dep. of Ramet. Pop. 798.

**IVREA**, a province, mandamento, and town of the Sardinian states, in Piedmont. The prov. lies between 45° 12' and 45° 35' N lat.; and is bounded on the N by the prov. of Aosta; on the NE by that of Biella; on the SE by the prov. of Vercelli; on the

S by that of Turin; and on the SW by Savoy. It comprises an area of 453 Italian or geog. sq. m.; and is subdivided into 15 mandamento and 113 com. Pop. in 1821, 145,572; in 1839, 160,574. An extensive branch of the Graian Alps runs along the N confines, and sends a considerable ramification in a SE direction through the prov. The principal rivers are the Dora-Baltea, with its affluent the Chinsella; the Oree, which descends from Mount Iseran, and its tributaries the Soana and Malosna. To the SE of the chief town is an extensive sheet of water, named Lake Viverone; and on the opposite side of the Dora is a considerably smaller lake. The surface is generally undulating, and the soil is to a great extent highly productive, two-thirds being under cultivation; a 15th part is covered with wood. The principal articles of produce are grain, wine,—a large portion of which is converted into brandy,—chestnuts, and other fruit in great abundance, pot-herbs, and silk. In the mountains are mines of galena, copper, and iron, and quarries of statuary marble, slate, and freestone. The numbers of domestic animals annually reared on its pastures are 31,000 cattle, 613 horses, 890 asses, 1,626 mules, 25,000 sheep, 5,500 goats, and 4,500 pigs. Linen and iron-ware form the chief articles of local manufacture.—The town of I. is 33 m. NNE of Turin, on the l. bank of the Dora, between two hills, a little below the opening of the Val-d'Aosta. Pop. 7,000. It is surrounded by old walls, defended by a citadel and a small fortress, and contains an ancient cathedral, supposed to have originally been a temple dedicated to Apollo; 5 other parish-churches, numerous convents, a college, a theological academy, and an hospital. The streets are badly laid out, and the houses generally are ill-built. Its industry consists chiefly in the manufacture of silk and cotton fabrics. Rice, hemp, cheese, cattle, and iron, form its chief articles of trade. The town occupies the site of the ancient *Eporedia*, founded by a Roman colony under Velleius Paterculus. It has been repeatedly taken by the French; and during the annexation of Piedmont to the empire, formed the capital of the dep. of the Doire.

**IVRY**, a village of France, in the dep. of the Cote-d'Or, cant. and 6 m. N of Noly. Pop. 330. It has 4 annual fairs.

**IVRY-LA-BATAILLE**, a commune and town of France, in the dep. of the Eure, cant. and 9 m. ESE of St. André, on the l. bank of the Eure. Pop. 914. It has manufactories of wind-instruments, combs, and leather, and a cotton spinning-mill. Cattle fairs are held here 3 times a-year. It is noted for the victory gained in the environs by Henry IV., on the 14th March 1590.

**IVRY-SUR-SEINE**, a commune of France, in the dep. of the Seine, cant. of Villejuif, 5 m. NE of Sceaux, and 4 m. SSE of Paris, near the l. bank of the Seine. Pop. in 1830, 2,900; in 1841, 6,836. It contains a church, a mansion formerly belonging to the Orleans family, and numerous handsome villas; and possesses manufactories of leather, machinery, paper-hangings, pottery, earthenware, tiles, and bricks, ornamental tacks, cement, brandy, and chemical substances. It has also an extensive glass-house, a sugar-refinery, a brewery, and a spinning-mill; and is a general entrepot for the wines of the surrounding district, vaults having been formed in the adjacent rocks capable of receiving the amount of 20,000 barrels.

**IVUCKTOKE**, or **HAMILTON INLET**, an arm of the sea extending to a considerable depth into the E coast of Labrador, in N lat. 54° 25', to the N of Sandwich bay. It receives at the head a small stream, named Hamilton river.

**IVY-BRIDGE**, a chapelry and village in Devon-

shire, on the Erme, here crossed by a bridge, 6 m. E of Plympton-Earl.

**IVY-CHURCH**, a parish in Kent, 3 m. NW of New Romney. Area 4,542 acres. Pop. in 1851, 264.

**IWADE**, a parish in Kent, 2½ m. N of Milton. Area 3,762 acres. Pop. in 1831, 134; in 1851, 171.

**IWANISKA**, a town of Poland, in the gov., obwod, and 24 m. E of Sandomir, and 51 m. S of Radom. Pop. 414.

**IWANOWICE**, a small town of Poland, in the gov., obwod, and 14 m. SE of Kalisch. Pop. 980.

**IWERNE-COURTENAY**, a parish in Dorset, 4½ m. NNW of Blandford-Forum. Area 1,953 acres. Pop. in 1831, 557; in 1851, 689.

**IWERNE-MINSTER**, a parish in Dorset, 5½ m. S of Shaftesbury. Area 2,949 acres. Pop. 703.

**IWNY**, or **IVNY**, a commune and town of France, in the dep. of the Nord, cant. and 6 m. NE of Cambrai. Pop. in 1841, 3,732. It has manufactories of common cutlery, woollen and cotton hosiery, and of sugar from beet-root.

**IXELLES**, a department, commune, and town of France, in the prov. of Brabant, arrond. and 1½ m. SE of Brussels. Pop. of dep. 7,086; of town 2,096. It has a fine new church, and delightful public walks; and contains several breweries.

**IXIE**, or **UXIE**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Para, which descends from the E side of the Sierra Tunhu, on the confines of Venezuela; runs E, and joins the Rio Negro, on the r. bank, near S. Marcelino, and after a course of about 120 m.

**IXTEPEXI**, a village of Mexico, in the state and 30 m. ENE of Oaxaca. Chochineal is extensively cultivated in its environs.

**IXTLAHUACA**, a town of Mexico, in the state of Mechoacan, and 48 m. WNW of Mexico, on the r. bank of the Lerma, at 1,326 toises above sea-level.

**IXWORTH**, a parish and village of Suffolk, 6 m. NE of Bury-St.-Edmund's. Area of p. 2,248 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,061; in 1851, 1,189. The village is pleasantly situated in a valley, on a small tributary of the Ouse.

**IXWORTH-THORPE**, a parish in Suffolk, 7 m. NE of Bury-St.-Edmund's. Area 770 acres. Pop. in 1831, 128; in 1851, 136.

**IYO**, or **YI-YU**, a province of Japan, in the W part of the island of Sikokf. It is covered by ridges of lofty mountains; but has some large and well-cultivated valleys. Its productions are silk, cotton, and hemp.—Its cap., of the same name, is 36 m. NNE of Tosa.

**IZABAL**. See **YSABAL**.

**IZAIRE (SAINT)**, a commune of France, in the dep. of Aveyron, cant. of Saint-Sernin. Pop. 1,905.

**IZAL**, a village of Spain, in the prov. and 24 m. ENE of Pampeluna, on the Salazar. Pop. 170.

**IZALCO**. See **ISALCO**.

**IZALZU**, a village of Spain, in the prov. and 28 m. NE of Pampeluna, on the l. bank of the Salazar. Pop. 250.

**IZARD**, a county in the N part of the state of Arkansas, U. S., intersected by White river and its branches. Pop. in 1840, 2,240; in 1850, 2,965.—Its cap., now called Athens, is 150 m. N of Little Rock.

**IZARZA**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 9 m. ESE of Vitoria. Pop. 120.

**IZBICE**, a village of Poland, in the gov. of Mazovia, 15 m. SSW of Brzesc. Pop. 700.

**IZBORSK**, a town of Russia, in the gov. and 24 m. WSW of Pskov.

**IZBYCA**, a village of Poland, in the gov. and 39 m. SE of Lublin, on the r. bank of the Wieprz. Pop. 400.

**IZE'**, a town of France, in the dep. of Ile-et-Vilaine, cant. and 6 m. NW of Vitre. Pop. 3,000.

—Also a town in the dep. of Mayenne, cant. and 27 m. ENE of Laval. Pop. 1,700.

**IZEAUX**, a town of France, in the dep. of Isere, cant. of Rives, 18 m. NW of Grenoble. Pop. 1,474.

**IZERNORE**, a canton, commune, and town of France, in the dep. of l'Ain, arrond. of Nantua.—The cant. comprises 14 coms. Pop. 6,469.—The com., 6 m. NNW of Nantua, had a pop. of 1,005 in 1841.

**IZERON**, a village of France, in the dep. of Isere, cant. of Pont-en-Royans, on the l. bank of the Isere, 3 m. E of Saint-Marcellin. Pop. 780.—Also a village in the dep. of the Rhone, cant. of Vaugneray, 12 m. ESE of Lyon. Pop. 500.

**IZESTE**, a village of France, in the dep. of Basses-Pyrenees, cant. and 1 m. S of Arudy, on the l. bank of the Gave-d'Ossan. Pop. 460.

**IZIEUX**, a commune and village of France, in the dep. of Loire, cant. and 1 m. SW of St. Chamomel, on the l. bank of the Ban. Pop. 2,444.

**IZIUM**, a town of Russia, in the gov. and 46 m. SE of Kharkov, on the Donetz river. Pop. 4,000. It is strongly fortified and has an active trade in wheat and cattle.

**IZMAIL**. See **ISMAIL**.

**IZNAJAR**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 48 m. SE of Cordova, on the r. bank of the Genil. Pop. 3,800.

**IZNATE**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 12 m. E of Malaga. Pop. 1,500.

**IZNATORAEFE**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 39 m. NE of Jaen, between the rivers Guadalquivir and Guadalimar. Pop. 2,300. It is walled.

**IZNIK**. See **ISNIK**.

**IZON**, a commune and village of France, in the dep. of Gironde, cant. and 6 m. W of Libourne. Pop. 1,470.

**IZTACCIHUATL**, or **IXTACXIHUATLE**, a volcanic mountain of Mexico, in the state and 39 m. WNW of La Puebla. It has an alt. of 2,455 toises = 5,233 yds. above sea-level.

**IZY**, a village of France, in the dep. of Loiret, cant. of Outarville, 18 m. NNE of Orleans. Pop. 1,320.

**IZZANO**, a town of Austrian Lombardy, 3 m. E of Crema. Pop. 1,140.

## J

•• For names not inserted under this letter, refer to Dj, G, I, Y, or X.

**JAALONS**, a commune and village of France, in the dep. of Marne, cant. of Ecury-sur-Coole. Pop. 575.

**JAAR**. See **GEER**.

**JABARI**, or **HIABARI**, a river of South America, which rising in the Andes-de-Cuchao, nearly under the parallel of 12° S, flows N by W, to near the parallel of 4° 30' S, where it bends NE and flows into the Amazon on the r. bank. It forms throughout the greater part of its course the boundary between Peru and Brazil.

**JABBALPUR**, a town of Hindostan, in the presidency of Bengal, 48 m. NW of Mundlah.

**JABBEKE**, a commune and village of Belgium, in the prov. of W. Flanders, 6 m. SW of Bruges. Pop. 1,260.

**JABBI**, a considerable town of Bambarra in Western Africa, on the l. bank of the Niger, 55 m. WSW of Sego.

**JABI**, a district on the Gold coast of Africa, to the NE of Ahanta. The soil is fertile, and it produces gold.

**JABLOKA-NIZSZA**, a village of Galicia, in the circle and 30 m. SSW of Sambor, on an affluent of the Stry. Pop. 1,000.

**JABLONACZ**, a small sea-port town of Austrian Dalmatia, on the coast of Morlachia, 16 m. SE of Zeng.

**JABLONCZA**, or **JABLONICZ**, a small town of Hungary, in the palatinate of Neutra, on the Miawa, 20 m. WNW of Leopoldstadt.

**JABLONKA**, a town of Hungary, in the com. of Arva, 9 m. N of Trsztenna. Pop. 3,580.

**JABLONOV**, a small town of Austrian Poland, in Galicia, on the l. bank of the Luczka. It has a salt work; and is a staple for the sale of salt brought from different places in the surrounding country.

**JABLONOVKA**, a village of German colonists in the Russian gov. of Saratof, on the l. bank of the Volga, 42 m. NNE of Kamishin.

**JABLOTCHNAIA**, a town of Russia, in the gov. and 45 m. NW of Kharkov, on the l. bank of the Rabina.

**JABRON**, a river of France, which rises in the mountains of Montfroc, in the SE of the dep. of the Drome; runs E into the dep. of Basses-Alpes, and joins the Durance, on the r. bank, 3 m. S of Sisteron.

**JABRUD**, a town of Syria, in the pash. and 24 m. NE of Damascus.

**JABUGO-LA-REAL**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 42 m. NW of Seville, on the l. bank of the Murtiga. Pop. 1,960.

**JACA**, or **JACCA**, a small town of Spain, in Aragon, situated among the Pyrenees, to the NW of the fine clothed peak of Oroel, 45 m. N of Saragossa, on the Gas, an affluent of the Aragon. It is a compact little town, still enclosed by its ancient walls, and defended by a citadel built in 1592, which forms a separate enclosure a few yards to the N. This town is very ancient, and preserves the name it bore in the time of the Romans, under whom it was the cap. of the prov. of *Jactania*. It was at one time the capital of Aragon, and is still the chief place of an extensive and populous district. It was



taken by the French in 1808, and held by them till 1814.

**JACAIBAMBA**, a large lake of Peru, in the prov. of Canta, formed from the river Carabaillo, which runs W, and enters the Pacific ocean to the N of Lima.

**JACARCHI**, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of São Paulo, on the r. bank of the Parahiba, in S lat. 23° 18'. Coffee and tobacco are cultivated in the vicinity.

**JACARE**, a small river of Brazil, in the prov. of Sergipe, rising in the Serra Negra, and joining the San Francisco, after a course of 30 m.—Also a river in the prov. of Goyaz, an affluent of the Paranaíba.—Also a district of the Serra Negra, between the provs. of Pernambuco and Sergipe, inhabited by Checos Indians.

**JACAREPAGUA**, or **JARACAPANHA**, a lake of Brazil, in the prov. and 12 m. W of Rio-de-Janeiro. It abounds in fish.

**JACARE-PEPERA**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of São Paulo. It flows into the Tieté, 6 m. below the confluence of the Jacaré-Pepera-Mirim.

**JACARES**, a lake of Brazil, in the prov. of Rio-de-Janeiro, ESE of Campos. It communicates with the Parahiba and also with the Furado.

**JACATRA**, a district in the W part of the island of Java, between Cheribon and Bantam, of which Batavia is the capital, formerly a kingdom governed by its own sovereigns. In 1612, the Dutch obtained permission to settle here; but having broken with the prince of the district, they wrested it from him, and built Batavia in 1619. The country of Jacatra formerly comprised 30 districts, containing 33,914 families, and 203,484 inhabitants. It is watered and fertilized by several rivers, most of which, however, are little better than small rivulets in the good or dry season. Its productions are coffee, sugar, and rice, likewise indigo, cotton-yarn, turmeric, and cadjang or lentiles, from which oil is pressed. See **JAVA**.

**JACL**. See **AOI REALE**.

**JACINTO (SAN)**, a river of Texas, flowing in a SSE course, through Harrisburg co., into a bay of the same name, a branch of Galveston bay. The river is navigable by small steamers for a part of its course. Its principal tributaries are Cypress Bayou, Spring creek, and Lake creek. On the 21st of April 1836, General Santa Anna was totally defeated on the banks of this river by the Texans under General Houston, and was himself captured on the following day.

**JACK (BIG and LITTLE)**, the names borne by two streams in the NW territory of North America. Little J. is a channel that winds among several large islands which separate the upper and the lower Play-Green lake. At the lower end of this channel, Big J., a stream of considerable magnitude, falls into the lake.

**JACKAWA**, a district of New South Wales, 110 m. from Sydney, and 40 m. from Jarvis bay, intersected by branches of the Shoalhaven river.

**JACKIE (PULO)**, a small island off the E point of the island of Timor.

**JACKSON**, a county in the NW part of the state of Virginia, U. S., skirted on the NW by the Ohio. Area 480 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 4,890; in 1850, 6,548. Its cap. is Ripley.—Also a co. in Georgia, U. S., situated centrally towards the N part, and watered by branches of the Oconee and the Appalachee. Area 432 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 8,522; in 1850, 10,868. Its cap. is Jefferson.—Also a co. in the N part of Florida, between the Appalacheicola on the E, and the Choctawatchee on the W. Pop. in 1840, 4,681; in 1850, 6,641. Its cap. is Marianna.—Also a co. in

Alabama, U. S., in the N part of the state, watered on the SE and S by the Tennessee, and on the SW by the Flint. Area 975 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 15,715; in 1850, 14,088. Its cap. is Bellefonte.—Also a co. in the SE part of the state of Mississippi, watered by the Pascagoula and its branches. Area 1,175 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 1,965; in 1850, 3,196. Its cap. is Jackson.—Also a co. in the N part of Middle Tennessee, U. S., watered by the Cumberland and its branches. Area 666 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 12,872; in 1850, 15,680. Its cap. is Gainsborough.—Also a co. in the S part of Ohio, U. S. Area 400 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 9,744; in 1850, 12,725. Its cap. is Jackson.—Also a co. in the state of Michigan, situated towards the S, watered by the Grand, Kalamazoo, and Raisin rivers. Area 720 sq. m. Pop. 1840, 13,130; in 1850, 19,432. Its cap. is Jackson.—Also a co. in the state of Indiana, towards the S part, intersected by the Muscatatauck and Driftwood rivers. Area about 500 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 8,961; in 1850, 11,030. Its cap. is Brownstown.—Also a co. in the S part of the state of Illinois, skirted on the W by the Mississippi. Area 576 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 3,566; in 1850, 5,760. Its cap. is Brownsville.—Also a co. in Iowa, towards the NE part of the territory, and watered on the E by the Mississippi. Area 628 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 1,411; in 1850, 7,210. Its cap. is Bellevue.—Also a co. in the W part of the state of Missouri, bounded on the N by the Missouri river. Area 525 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 7,612; in 1850, 14,001. Its cap. is Independence.—Also a co. in the NE part of the state of Arkansas, watered on the W by the Big Black river. Area 800 sq. m. Pop. in 1840, 1,540; in 1850, 3,306. Its cap. is Elizabeth.—Also a co. in Texas, watered by the Navidad and La Baca. It has a gently undulating surface, and a rich deep black soil, upon a stratum of red loam. Pop. in 1850, 952; of whom 339 were slaves.

**JACKSON**, a township in Waldo co., in the state of Maine, U. S., 47 m. NE of Augusta, intersected by branches of Marsh river. Pop. 658.—Also a township in Coos co., in New Hampshire, 79 m. N by E of Concord, on the E side of the White mountains. Pop. 584.—Also a township of Washington co., in the state of New York, 40 m. NE of Albany. Its surface is diversified; and its soil, consisting of clay and sandy loam, is moderately fertile. Pop. 1,730.—Also a township in Northumberland co., Pennsylvania. Pop. 1,534.—Also a township in Susquehanna co., Pennsylvania, 181 m. NE of Harrisburg. Pop. 754.—Also a township in Dauphin co., Pennsylvania, intersected by Powell's and Armstrong's creeks, flowing into the Susquehanna river. Pop. 1,164.—Also a township in Lycoming co., Pennsylvania. Pop. 336.—Also a township in Columbia co., Pennsylvania. Pop. 265.—Also a township in Green co., Pennsylvania. Pop. 1,020.—Also a township in Lebanon co., Pennsylvania, 7 m. E of Lebanon, traversed from W to E by the Union canal. Pop. 2,508.—Also a township in Tioga co., Pennsylvania. Pop. 1,123.—Also a township in Cambria co., Pennsylvania. Pop. 623.—There are numerous townships of this name in the state of Ohio: viz., one in Montgomery co., with a pop. of 1,688; in Wayne co., pop. 16; in Muskingum co., pop. 960; in Union co., pop. 352; in Starke co., pop. 1,547; in Wood co., pop. 25; in Trumbull co., pop. 1,124; in Allen co., pop. 569; in Shelby co., pop. 478; in Brown co., pop. 1,253; in Champaign co., pop. 1,431; in Clermont co., pop. 883; in Seneca co., pop. 596; in Coshocton co., situated on the W side of the Muskingum river, pop. 1,896; in Crawford co., pop. 654; in Franklin co., on the W side of the Scioto river, pop. 784; in Darke co., pop. 303; in

Guernsey co., pop. 1,153; in Hancock co., pop. 630; in Hardin co., pop. 260; in Highland co., pop. 2,352; in Hocking co., pop. 472; in Jackson co., pop. 297; in Knox co., pop. 994; in Morgan co., pop. 920; in Perry co., pop. 1,700; in Pickaway co., pop. 993; in Pike co., pop. 1,094.—In the state of Indiana also are the following townships of the name of Jackson: in Clay co., pop. 918; in Dearborn co., pop. 1,007; in Fayette co., pop. 1,185; in Fountain co., pop. 960; in Hancock co., pop. 1,142; in Orange co., pop. 529; in Owen co., pop. 594; in Putnam co., pop. 923; in Randolph co., pop. 591; in Ripley co., pop. 4,936; in Rush co., pop. 914; in Shelby co., pop. 1,511; in Steuben co., pop. 397; in Tippecanoe co., pop. 451; in Washington co., pop. 2,463; in Wayne co., pop. 3,403.—Also a township in Jackson co., state of Michigan, 79 m. W of Detroit. Pop. 2,773.—Also a village in Hinds co., Mississippi, on the W bank of the Pearl river, which is navigable for boats to this place. It is likewise connected with Vicksburg by a railroad 45 m. in length. Pop. 2,100.—Also a village in E. Feliciana, state of Louisiana, 124 m. W of New Orleans. Pop. 932.—Also a village, the cap. of Cape Madison co., in Tennessee, 134 m. WSW of Nashville, and on the N side of Forked Deer river. Pop. 1,200.—Also a village, the cap. of Cape Girardeau co., Missouri, 196 m. SE of Jefferson city. Pop. 800.—Also a township in Johnson co., state of Missouri. Pop. 1,566.—Also a township in Livingston co., in the same state. Pop. 593.—Also a township in Macon co. Pop. 373.—Also a township in Munroe co. Pop. 2,905.—Also a township in Polk co., pop. 1,035; also in St. Genevieve co., pop. 302; also in Taney co., pop. 687; also in Clarke co., pop. 659.—Also a village in Lawrence co., state of Arkansas. Pop. 150.—Also a township in Carroll co., Arkansas. Pop. 281.—Also a township in Sevier co., Arkansas. Pop. 383.—Also a township in Monroe co., Arkansas. Pop. 167.—Also a village in Union co., Arkansas. Pop. 520.

**JACKSON (POINT)**, a steep, cliffy promontory, with a reef of rocks running out from it, forming the W headland of Queen Charlotte's sound, in Cook's straits, New Zealand.

**JACKSON (PORT)**, an extensive and beautiful inlet on the coast of New South Wales, running 20 m. into the interior, embracing several islands, presenting a great number of picturesque coves and ramifications, and affording shelter and spacious anchorage for ships of the largest burden. The lighthouse on the outer S head (*a*) is in S lat.  $33^{\circ} 51' 11''$ , E long.  $151^{\circ} 19' 45''$ . The distance between the N and S heads, or extreme points of the

entrance (*b* and *a*), two bare bluff promontories of dark rock, is 2,500 yards. The N head (*b*) bears from the inner S head N  $53^{\circ}$  E by compass. A point of land, called Middle head (*c*), stretches out from the S side of the bay, so as completely to protect it from the E winds. From the heads to Sydney cove (*d*), the distance is about 7 m. W. The cove is nearly a  $\frac{1}{2}$  m. deep, and 200 yds. wide, while the width of the main inlet is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. The N shore of this noble inlet is moderately elevated, very rocky, and densely covered down to the water's edge with a dark stunted vegetation. Along the margins of the romantic little bays, whose beach is skirted with a pure white silvery sand, are seen a few houses surrounded with diminutive patches of verdure. The aspect of the S shore is more pleasing. Its various lawny promontories, or rocky mounts are crowned with white villas, or with large and handsome mansions, surrounded by groves and lawns, the abodes of some of the old colonists, who have been carried onward by the tide of prosperity which has marked the progress of New South Wales. A few rocky islands, feathered lightly with scrubby brushwood, lie scattered along the arms of the harbour. As we advance up the harbour, the shores are more closely covered with buildings. The new government house rears its castellated outline high above the trees of the Domain and of the Botanical gardens; forts and batteries are seen either completed or in progress; and lastly, situated on the sides and ridges of a sandstone promontory, and almost surrounded by the waters of the stream, the Cove, and Darling harbour, stands the Australian capital. [See SYDNEY.] "The configuration of this beautiful harbour is that of a cleft from 1 to 2 m. in breadth, and extending from the sea in a direction nearly at right angles to the coast. Its opposite shores present so exact a correspondence to each other in their general aspect, their elevation, and their stratification, that it seems impossible to avoid coming to the conclusion, that at one period they have been contiguous. If such has been the fact, by what means has a separation been effected, so as to allow the waters of the ocean to flow for 20 m. into the interior? It seems rational to refer the formation of such inlets to the simultaneous elevation of a large portion of the bottom of the ocean, previously converted into sandstone by the pressure of water, and in some measure also by the hardening agency of that internal heat of whose existence every region of the globe presents abundant evidence. The result of such a uniform elevation of submarine land from a lower to a higher level would, necessarily, be disruption, and the formation of clefts or chasms in the superior strata; and the volcanic phenomena which produced these changes might either have been sudden and of short duration, or they might have extended over a vast period. The shores, from the water's edge to the summit of the neighbouring ridges, would at first sight be pronounced uncultivable. A laborious and expensive process is necessary to clear away the coarse scrub, and to level the broken and stony surface. On the S shore many vineyards are now in process of formation; and Mr. Wentworth has succeeded in cultivating the banana on his grounds in a well-sheltered spot." [R. G. Jameson.] The beauty of the situation, the views of the harbour and shipping, and the coolness and salubrity of the sea-breeze, render the S shores a favourite locality among the wealthier members of the community; but the price which the land bears in that situation is beyond the means of new settlers. This harbour, perhaps the finest in the world, presenting 15 m. of deep water, completely protected, was overlooked by Cook, who hid it down in his

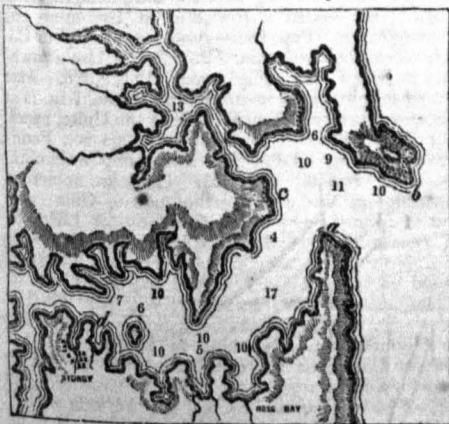


chart as a mere boat-haven. Captain Philip first explored it in January 1788, and bestowed on it the name of the man who was on the look-out when it was discovered.

**JACKSONBOROUGH**, a village in Otsego co., in the state of New York, U. S., 62 m. W of Albany. Pop. 300.—Also a village in Wayne co., Indiana, 57 m. E of Indianapolis. Pop. 100.

**JACKSONTOWN**, a village in Licking co., state of Ohio, U. S., 31 m. NE of Columbus. Pop. 200.

**JACKSONVILLE**, a village in Tompkins co., state of New York, U. S., 170 m. W by S of Albany. Pop. 150.—Also the capital of Morgan co., Illinois, 33 m. W of Springfield, situated in the midst of a well-cultivated prairie. It is one of the largest inland towns of the state, and contains several important institutions besides the Illinois college founded in 1829.

**JACLIANO**, a small island in the Adriatic, on the coast of Dalmatia, in the group called the Cervini islands.

**JACMEL**, a town of Hayti, on the SW coast, on the NE side of a bay of the same name, in N lat. 18° 13' 30", W long. 72° 33' 30". It consists of a lower town, built along the shore, and an upper town, built on a hill immediately behind. Its pop. is between 6,000 and 7,000.

**JACMEL (CAPE)**, a headland on the coast of Hayti, in N lat. 18° 10', W long. 72° 33'.

**JACOB (SAINT)**, a hamlet of Switzerland, in the cant. and 1 m. SE of Basle, on a rising ground near the l. bank of the Birse, the Thermopylae of Swiss history, as the spot on which a body of 1,600 Swiss, on the 26th of August, 1844, attacked a French army tenfold more numerous, and sacrificed themselves in a fight of 10 hours' duration, in which all the Switzers fell with the exception of 10.

**JACOB RIVER**, or **APARIMA**, a river of the middle island of New Zealand, which flows into Foveaux's strait 30 m. W of the mouth of New River. It is accessible for shipping of considerable size; and there is a small European community near its mouth, who pursue whaling, sealing, and husbandry, and grow a little wheat.

**JACOBINA**, a city of Brazil, in the prov. and 210 m. WNW of Bahia, on the l. bank of the Southern Itapicuru, at the juncture of the Ouro. The district is mountainous, but fertile and cultivated, producing sugar, tobacco of superior quality, and maize. Cattle, horses, hogs, sheep, and goats are numerously reared in this quarter of the prov.

**JACOB'S (Str.)**, a large village of Holland, in the prov. of Friesland, with 1,600 inhabitants, 10 m. NW of Leenwarden.

**JACOBSTOWN**, a village in Belmont co., Ohio, U. S. Pop. 175.

**JACOBSHAGEN**, a village of Prussian Pomerania, 16 m. E of Stargard, on a small lake. Pop. 1,050.

**JACOBSHAVN**, a settlement on the W coast of Greenland, in N lat. 69° 13', W long. 50° 56'.

**JACOBSTADT**, a small town of European Russia, in the gov. of Finland, with a convenient harbour on the gulf of Bothnia, 50 m. NNE of Wasa. Pop. 1,200.

**JACOBSTOW**, a parish of Cornwall, 8 m. SW of Stratton. Area 4,554 acres. Pop. 487.—Also a parish in Devonshire, 3½ m. ESE of Hatherleigh. Area 2,856 acres. Pop. 255.

**JACOBSSWALDE**, or **OCTAWIZ**, a village of Prussian Silesia, in the gov. of Oppeln, 9 m. SE of Kosel, remarkable for its large brass-works.

**JACOME**, a river of Venezuela, in the prov. of Cumana, which, joining the Santiago, enters the Marapiri.

**JACOTTA**, a town of Hindostan, in the prov. of Cochin. It is fortified, and possesses a small harbour, in N lat. 10° 14'.

**JACQUES**. See **JAMES**.

**JACQUES-CARTIER**, a river of Lower Canada, which flows into the St. Lawrence, 30 m. WSW of Quebec, after a rapid course of about 60 m.

**JACQUES-DES-ARRETS (SAINT)**, a village of France, in the dep. of the Rhone, 6 m. N of Beaujeu. Pop. 380.

**JACQUES-DES-BLATS (SAINT)**, a village of France, in the dep. of Cantal, cant. and 6 m. NNE of Vic-sur-Cere, near the source of the Cere. Pop. 1,160.

**JACQUES-SUR-DARNETAL (SAINT)**, a village of France, in the dep. of Seine-Inferieure, 3 m. E of Darnetal. Pop. 1,100.

**JACQUET**, a river of New Brunswick, in Restigouche co., descending from the mountains to the S, and flowing into the sea about 9 m. from Belle Dune.

**JACTIAL**, a town of Hindostan, in the prov. of Hyderabad, 36 m. N of Elgondel.

**JACUHI**, a town of Brazil, in the prov. of Minas-Geraes, comarca of Sapucahi, near the source of the river of the same name, in 21° 18' S lat.—Also a large river in the prov. of São-Pedro-do-Rio-Grande, rising on the S flank of the Serra-Geral, in several head-streams, amongst which are the Jacayoiba, the Ibirayopira, and the Jai; and flowing by a SSE and E course into the NW extremity of the Lago-delos-Patos. It receives the Vacahi, Santa-Barbara, Dom-Marcos, Irapuan, and Piqueri, on the r. bank; and the Butucarai, Pardo, Tacoari, Cahí, Sinos, and Gravatahi, on the l.

**JACUHIPE**, a small river of Brazil, in the prov. of Alagoas, rising in the marshes of Panella, and flowing NE to the Una, which it joins on the r. bank.—Also a river in the prov. of Bahia, rising in the Morro-do-Chapeo, and flowing into the Paraguaçu on the l. bank.

**JACUNDAZ**, a river of Brazil, in the prov. of Para, flowing N into the arm of the Amazon called Tagipuru.

**JACUTINGA**, a village of Brazil, in the prov. and 20 m. NE of Rio-de-Janeiro. The environs are well-watered, and fertile in sugar-cane, mandioc, and coffee.

**JACURZO**, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Calabria-Ultra 2da, cant. and 2 m. W of Cortale. Pop. 1,400.

**JADO**, a town of Nifon, in Japan, 5 m. SE of Meaco.

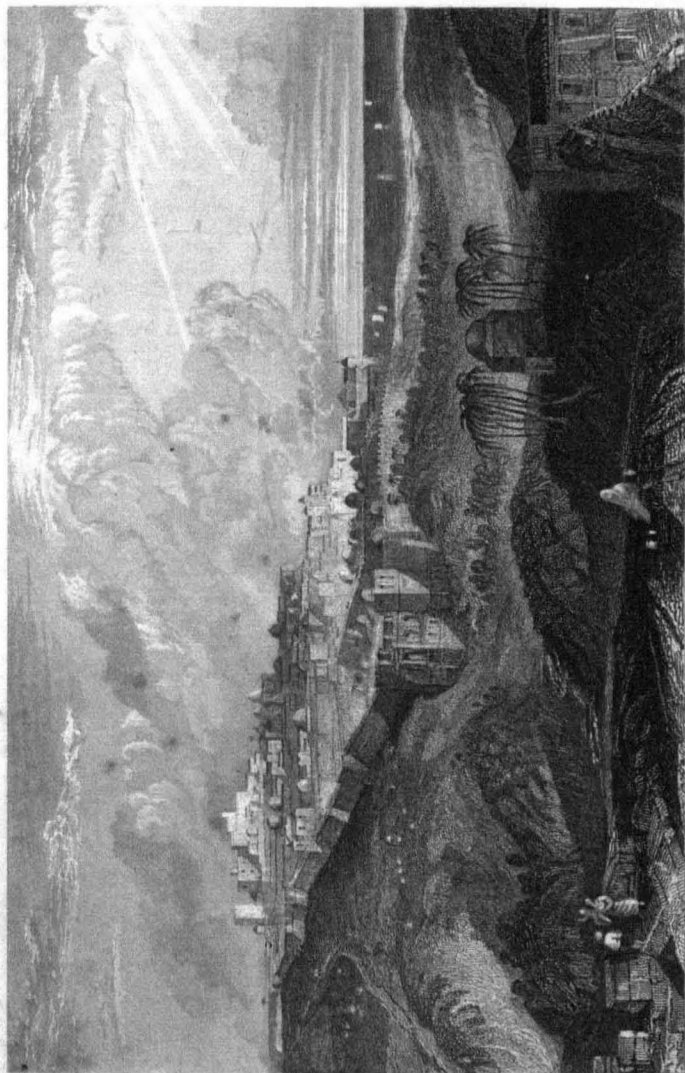
**JADRAQUE**, a town of Spain, in the prov. and 24 m. NNE of Guadalajara. Pop. 1,500.

**JADU**, a capacious and populous town of Guinea, 50 m. N by E of Badagry. The inhabitants are, generally speaking, well-clad in cotton dresses of their own manufacture. European goods are brought hither from Dahomey, Badagry, and Lagos.

**JEMTLAND**. See **JEMTLAND**.

**JAEN**, a province of Spain, forming the NE part of Andalusia, and surrounded by the provinces of La Mancha, Granada, Murcia, and Cordova. Its pop. in 1803 was 207,000. The N is occupied by the Sierra Morena, and its ramifications, which separate it from La Mancha; another lofty chain, the Algarinejo, divides it from Granada. In these elevated districts the ground is of course less fertile, and the surface is in a great measure covered with wood; but in the central part of the province, which presents a deep valley intersected from E to W by the Guadalquivir, the soil is in some places rich. Badly as the land is cultivated, wine, oil, silk, and corn are produced in considerable abundance, especially along the Guadalquivir. The principal rivers





Engraved by R. Fisher.

# JAFFA - JOFFA.

A. Phillips del. & C. Lockhart sculp.

which swell the Guadalquivir in this prov., are the Guadalimar, Herrumblar, and Jandula, on the r.; and the Guadiana-Menor, Jandulilla, and Jaen, on the l. This province was formerly famous for its horses, but the breed has now degenerated. The minerals of most common occurrence are salt, lead, and copper. The only manufactures are woollen and silk, and even these cannot be called thriving. The chief towns are Jaen, Ubeda, Baeza, and Anduxar. The province of J. was formed into a kingdom by the Moors, on the dismemberment of that of Cordova. It constituted the smallest of the Andalusian monarchies, and remained in the hands of the Moors till 1243, when it was conquered by Ferdinand II., king of Castile.

The modern prov. of J., as organized by decree of the Cortes in 1822, has an area of 4,455 sq. m., with a pop. in 1849 of 307,410. It comprises nearly the whole of the old prov. or kingdom of J., and some parts of Granada, Murcia, and Toledo; and is bounded on the N by Toledo; on the E by Chinchilla and Granada; on the S by Granada; and on the W by Cordova.

JAEN, a considerable city of Spain, the capital of the above prov., is situated on the outskirts of the Sierra-de-Susana, at an elevation of 2,500 ft. above sea-level, and on the E slope of a ridge whose summit is occupied by an old castle. It is surrounded by walls flanked with towers, is neatly built, and has several handsome churches and squares, one of which is spacious and surrounded by elegant houses. The streets are for the most part very narrow. It contains 15 convents, and is a bishop's see. The cathedral is a noble structure of Corinthian architecture, 300 ft. long; divided into six naves, and adorned on the outside with statues and bas-reliefs; in the interior, with magnificent drapery and paintings. Water is distributed to all parts of the town in great profusion, by means of public fountains. The castle is elevated 800 ft. above the city; and is still a fine specimen of a Moorish fortress, though "the picturesque has been sacrificed to the defensive by various French additions and demolitions." [*Capt. Scott.*] J. was a well-known place in the time of the Romans: it was then called *Aurinx*; and its ancient ruins attest its importance at that early period. It flourished also under the Moors; but after the expulsion of that industrious race, heavy taxes were imposed, which with other causes proved so ruinous to the silk works, that in the 16th cent. they were almost annihilated; but the city still contains numerous manufactories of silks, linens, and woollens, and mats, and has a thriving appearance. The pop. in 1845 was 17,327. The environs are pleasant, and present a number of fertile valleys. An extensive plain spreads to the N, seemingly to the very foot of the Sierra Morena; on every other side rise rugged mountains. A direct and excellent road has now been completed between Granada and Madrid, passing through J. The distance from J. to Granada, by this road, is 51 m.

JAEN-DE-BRACAMOROS, a province of Ecuador, in the dep. of Assuay, bounded on the N by Loja, and Quixos or Macas; on the E by Mainas; on the S by Caxamarca or Chachapoyas in Peru; and on the W by Piara. The greater part of the surface is uncultivated, and covered with forests; such parts as are cultivated are very fertile. The cacao flourishes; and excellent tobacco is produced, which being prepared in a peculiar manner, by soaking the leaves in decoctions of fragrant herbs, acquires so pleasant a flavour that the cigars of Jaen are sought after in Peru, Chili, and Quito. Cotton trees are abundant; and their produce constitutes a great part of the traffic of the inhabitants. The rivers of Bracamoros

formerly produced a great deal of gold. The commerce consists in cotton, tobacco, and mules, with which a brisk trade is carried on with Peru and Quito. The animals which roam in the wilds of Jaen are the cougar or puma, the jaguar, and the great black bear of the Andes, which equally inhabits all the mountain-regions of Quito. The woods are abundantly stocked with reptiles and birds. All the rivers flow into the Lauricocha, or descend into the deserts of the Amazons to join that noble stream on the E. —Jaen, the capital of the district, was founded in 1549, by Diego Palomino, on the river Chinchipe, near its junction with the Amazon, 96 m. SE of Loxa. Its inhabitants, amounting to 4,000, are mostly people of colour, with an inconsiderable proportion of Indians, and still fewer Spaniards.

JAFARYEH, a district of Lower Egypt, in the prov. of Garbieh, and dep. of Tantah.

JAFFA, or YAFFA, the ancient JOPPA, a town of Palestine, situated on a hill that rises abruptly from the coast of the Mediterranean, in N lat. 32° 3', E long. 34° 45', 40 m. W of Jerusalem, at the extremity of the broad vale of Sharon, and 3 hours from Ramla. It was the only port which the Jews possessed upon the Mediterranean, and thus became the seat of an extensive trade, notwithstanding the disadvantages of its situation; it was also the principal part of Syria, until, within the last few years, Beirut rose into leading importance. It is now inhabited by Turks and Arabs, with a mixture of Greeks, Maronites, and Armenians, whose numbers are estimated at 6,000. This part of the coast is generally but little raised above the level of the sea; but the houses, distributed on the declivity, appear rising above each other like the steps of an amphitheatre. The most prominent features in the appearance of the place from a distance are the flattened domes by which many of the buildings are surmounted, and the appearance of arched vaults. On the summit is a small citadel, which commands the town; the bottom of the hill, except towards the sea, is surrounded by a wall without a rampart, 12 or 14 ft. high, and 2 or 3 ft. thick, without any ditch, and only to be distinguished from a common wall by battlements at the top. The city is surrounded by gardens, where the light sandy soil is most favourable to the production of various fruits. Lemons, oranges, and citrons, grow here to a prodigious size; the water-melons are exquisite, and only equalled by those of Damietta in Egypt. A long low waste of coast extends on the S side, and except the groves and gardens which surround the town, there is nothing to break a dreary view of low sands, while over the whole town itself hangs an air of sadness and solitude. Its harbour is one of the worst in the Mediterranean, the water being so shallow, and so obstructed with rocks and sand, that large vessels cannot come nearer than a mile to load and unload. The ancient harbour is still traceable. Abreast of l. soundings extend only 5 or 6 leagues from shore. The road is protected by a castle built on a rock; and there are some storehouses and magazines built on the sea-side. The bazaars are miserable alleys of booths. The commerce consists in the importation of grain, particularly of rice, from Egypt, and the exportation of cotton. J. has always been a favourite resort of pilgrims to the Holy Land, being situated directly in the way to Jerusalem, although the road is mountainous and difficult, resembling the most rugged passes of the Apennines. In 1838, no less than 2,000 pilgrims were at the same moment in quarantine here, from each of whom a fee of 20 piastres = 4s., was exacted for a license to pass to Jerusalem. The Latins, Greeks, and Armenians, have each small convents here for the reception of pilgrims. The money collected from them